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ABSTRACT

This document contains 24 papers from the 1995 and 1998 International Society for Comparative Adult Education (ISCAE) conferences. The following papers are included: "International and Comparative Adult Education" (Jost Reischmann); "Development and Fundamental Principles of International and Comparative Adult Education" (Joachim H. Knoll); "Comparative Adult Education: Some Reflections on the Process" (Colin J. Titmus); "Standards for Comparative Adult Education Research" (Alexander N. Charters); "Comparative Thinking and the Structures of Adult Cognition: An Epistemological and Methodological Challenge for Comparative Adult Education" (Marcie Boucouvalas); "The End of Ideology and History Debate: Implications for the Philosophy of Comparative Adult Education" (Dilnawaz A. Siddiqui); "Understanding Andragogy in Europe and America: Comparing and Contrasting" (Dusan Savicevic); "Study Circle Topics in Slovenia and Sweden" (Nevenka Bogataj); "Adult Education Policies and Credit Bank Systems for Adult Participation in Korean and U.S. Higher Education" (Eun-Soo Choi); "National Strategies of Adult Education" (Zoran Jelenc); "Methodological Issues in Cross-Cultural Study of Adult's Value System: with Reference to a Comparison between Korea and Australia" (Kwan-Chun Lee); "Adult Learners' Week: Australia and Slovenia: A First Attempt at Comparison" (Roger K. Morris); "World Perspective and Landmarks in Adult Education--A Critical Re-analysis" (Jost Reischmann); "Problems and Pitfalls in Comparative Andragogy: Some Notes on the Research Process in Comparative Historical Studies" (Barry J. Hake); "Indicators of the 'Learning Society': Methodological Aspects of an

International Research Project" (Wolfgang Jutte); "Some Questions concerning International Partnership in Comparative Research on Adult Education" (Zoran Jelenc); "Experiencing a Dialogic Approach" (Madeleine Bials); "Translation Difficulties and the Importance of Terminology Work in Comparative Adult Education" (Wolfgang Jutte); "ISCAE--International Society for Comparative Adult Education" (Jost Reischmann); "ESREA--European Society for Research on the Education of Adults" (Barry J. Hake); "CONFINTEA V: A UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization)-Led Conference on Adult Learning in the Perspective on Lifelong Learning" (Paul Belanger); "International Expert Seminar: Methods of Comparative Andragogy" (Margaret Charters); and "International Expert Seminar on Comparative Andragogy" (Margaret Charters). Lists of participants at the two expert seminars are provided. Appended are UNESCO's Hamburg Declaration on Adult Learning and UNESCO Agenda for the Future. (MN)

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COMPARATIVE ADULT EDUCATION 1998

THE CONTRIBUTION OF ISCAE TO AN EMERGING FIELD OF STUDY

EDITORS

- Jost Reischmann
- Michal Bron Jr
- Zoran Jelenc

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INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY
FOR COMPARATIVE
ADULT EDUCATION ■
SLOVENIAN INSTITUTE
FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Ljubljana, 1999

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This publication was created on the basis of contributions presented at the conferences ISCAE 1995 in Bamberg (Germany) and ISCAE 1998 in Radovljica (Slovenia). The publication was financially supported by the Ministry for Science and Technology, Republic of Slovenia.

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ISCAE – the International Society for Comparative Adult Education – would like to thank the German Academic Research Society DAAD and the University of Bamberg for supporting its conference 1995 in Bamberg; and the Ministry for Education and Sport of Republic of Slovenia, the Open Society Institute – Slovenia and the Slovene Adult Education Centre for supporting its conference 1998 in Radovljica and the publication of this volume. ISCAE and the editors highly appreciate the valuable substance and effort of all presenters at the conferences, and especially the contributors to this book. We also thank the staff of the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education[1] for their diligence and patience in preparing this book.

The Editors

Dear reader,

We have done our utmost to ensure that the references in this book are as well co-ordinated as possible. On the whole we believe that we have succeeded in doing so; there were however, certain places where we were not able to obtain the feedback data or the author wished to use his/her personal style. In such cases we have not followed the overall style of presentation.

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[1] In March 1999 the name of the Slovene Adult Education Centre (SAEC) has been changed to Slovenian Institute for Adult Education (SIAE).

INTRODUCTION

INTERNATIONAL AND COMPARATIVE ADULT EDUCATION

Jost Reischmann ■ President ISCAE

In the emerging history of andragogy – the „Wissenschaft“ (science) of the education and learning of adults – we find a continuous interest in the adult education of other countries. In the century between Grundtvig (Denmark) and Freire (Brazil) a number of names and ideas became „owned“ internationally. The (English) University Extension Movement, the (Danish) Folkehøjskole, the (Swedish) Study Circle, the (American) Encounter Groups became models for adult education in many other countries (and often in this „borrowing“ the differences to the original were not perceived). Research shows a lot of cross-cultural communication, so for example in the British-Dutch-German Relationship in Adult Education between 1880 and 1930 (see Friedenthal-Haase, Hake, Marriott 1991). From the early years, for many national key persons in adult education, international traveling and exchanging was an important way to shape their understanding: Lindeman (USA) traveled to Germany, Mansbridge (Great Britain) to Australia and Canada, Borinski (Germany) to Scandinavia, and even today the „international guild of adult education“ can be found nearly completely face-to-face in Ibadan (Ghana 1991: International Conference on Comparative Adult Education), Prague (Czechoslovakia 1992: World Congress of Comparative Education), Ljubljana (Slovenia 1993: Conference „Rethinking Adult Education for Development“), or Hamburg (Germany 1997: UNESCO-Conference CONFINTEA V) – just to name some of the important meetings which will be described in more detail in various contributions in the following chapters. In 1919 the „World Association for Adult Education W. A. A. E.“ was founded with the mission, „to bring into co-operation and mutual relationship the adult education movements and institutions of the world, in order that peoples may proceed in greater power through wisdom – the mother of all things – to knowledge ...“.

These spotlights indicate that the international argument was and is used in the theory of adult education, as well as in the practical work in many countries. Its effect sometimes is evident and lasting, sometimes remains rhetoric or marginal.

Of course in all these activities practitioners and theorists compared the situation in their home country with the country visited or studied. Nevertheless all this must be labeled more appropriately by „international“ than by „comparative“. In most cases it is only searched selectively for „usable“ parts or arguments and for common understanding, and no methodological rigor is applied to identify similarities and differences.

While the international aspect in adult education and onto adult education has a long tradition, only a small and limited access to adult education is done comparatively.

This book brings together writers, reflections, and research that focuses explicitly on „comparison“ in adult education. It is based on two conferences which were organized by the International Society for Comparative Adult Education ISCAE 1995 in Bamberg (Germany) (papers by the authors updated in 1998 for this publication) and 1998 in Radovljica (Slovenia). The mission, development, and perspectives of this society will be described later in this book (Reischmann: ISCAE ...). International comparison in adult education in the understanding of ISCAE includes several elements:

„A study in comparative international adult education ... must include one or more aspects of adult education in two or more countries or regions. ... comparison ... attempts to identify the similarities and differences between the aspects under study ... The real value of comparative study emerges only from ... the attempt to understand why the differences and similarities occur and

what their significance is for adult education in the countries under examination ..." (Charters, Hilton 1989, p. 3).

In this understanding, country reports, reports about programs or topics in one country are not part of international comparative education. Also juxtaposition – the side-by-side placing of data and descriptions from two or more countries – is not at the stage of comparison. It is necessary that similarities and differences be explicitly worked out with some methodological rigor.

Part 1 of the following contributions – Philosophical and Theoretical Foundations – deals with more general questions about the fundamentals of international and comparative education. One central question is, which standards, principles and methods of research in comparative adult education already exists, and what these are – and which pitfalls and problems are known and perhaps can be avoided. There is a very practical idea behind this philosophical and theoretical part: When new researchers enter the field of comparative adult education they usually experience a series of questions and difficulties, because this field of research has not yet developed an internationally shared set of research methods. Experience and knowledge – as will be shown in the contributions of this book – has been developed over many years, but it is scattered in many places and countries. To avoid re-inventing the wheel, again and again, it is necessary that the knowledge, experiences, discussions, and standards of the „Why" and „How" of international comparison gained, in many places and languages, be carried together and made available as an aid to researchers to refer to and to build upon.

In part 2 a series of comparative studies is presented. These studies are different in scope and size, and demonstrate on one side how such studies can be executed and what results can be expected. On the other hand they also reveal difficulties and limitations.

Part 3 reflects some of the problems and pitfalls in international comparison. This should help researchers to critically analyze their own planned research work or research in progress.

International societies offer researchers bridges for contact and exchange. In the part 4, the International Society for Comparative Adult Education (ISCAE) is presented, as well as the European Society for Research on the Education of Adults (ESREA). Every twelve years, UNESCO invites participants to a worldwide conference about adult education: In 1997 CONFINTEA V took place in Hamburg, Germany. This conference itself is not comparative; anyhow it intends to influence the international development for the next decade and offers – beside national agendas for the future – the chance of comparative research between countries to document the outcomes of the conference. This is the reason why a report about this conference is included.

Part 5 documents the two ISCAE conferences, which took place in 1995 and 1998. Both reports may give some impressions about the group of researchers, the quality of exchange, the topics that could for various reasons not be included in this book, and also of the mood in which this exchange took place.

Finally the two UNESCO documents are supplemented which where developed in the process of CONFINTEA V. As described they are not comparative, but may offer researchers challenges to compare what the results and developments may be in different countries and regions of the world in the next decade.

Most researchers in comparative adult education agree that this field is at the beginning stage. This book hopefully supplies an impression of what has been developed until now. Also it carries together central literature references important to comparative research. Much more has to be done. So this book is seen as a beginning. ISCAE plans its next conference in the year 2000 at the University of Missouri, St. Louis, USA. It is hoped that the ISCAE-conferences and -publications will become increasingly a focus place where the knowledge of the comparatists in adult education will be concentrated, discussed, documented, and exchanged.

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PHILOSOPHICAL AND THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

DEVELOPMENT AND FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF INTERNATIONAL AND COMPARATIVE ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH

Joachim H. Knoll ■ Germany

❶

Common Goals

In the following we are aiming at a description of the relatively short history of *comparative studies in adult education* which is closely linked with *comparative studies in education*. While the latter can trace its history for more than 100 years down to the 40s of the last century, comparative studies in adult education have their origins in the sixties of our century and have omitted some of the phases characteristic for comparative research in education. Just at the beginning of comparative studies in adult education Roby Kidd argued about the benefits of comparative studies, and it is more than just historical respect to quote his early reflections, because he already depicts some of the timeless issues of comparative studies. His respected article is entitled „Comparative Adult Education. The First Decade" (Bennett, Kidd, Kulich 1975; see also the same authors 1971), and indicates that the „common goals of comparative studies" are: ■ „to become better informed about the educational system of other countries ■ to become better informed about the ways in which people in other cultures have carried out certain social functions by means of education ■ to become better informed about the historical roots of certain activities and thus to develop criteria for assessing contemporary developments and testing possible outcomes ■ to better understand the educational forms and systems operating in one's own country ■ to satisfy an interest in how human beings live and learn ■ to better understand oneself ■ to reveal how one's own cultural biases and personal attributes affect one's judgment about possible ways of carrying on learning transactions.

Roby Kidd argues predominantly under the umbrella of enlightenment, of information and understanding; nowadays comparative studies are required to transport the international argumentation into the decision making process of educational policy in individual countries or in international organizations (e.g. the EU), especially for structures and topics under reform. We will later return to this aspect of policy oriented comparative studies when talking about present issues such as literacy campaigns in developing and industrialized countries.

Our short consideration will at first refer to the knowledge of the historical as well as the present dimension and competence of international and comparative adult education. I use both terms – „international" and „comparative" – in order to prevent a mixing which results in the tendency to call every international study on adult education immediately „comparative". In fact, very few pieces of research work that are – according to their self-definition – „comparative" really deserve this attribution. They normally approach a phenomenon in a problem-orientated or in a country-monographic way without considering a tertium comparationis. Thus, I would like to advise a careful usage of the term „comparative", whilst I do not think the term „international" of lesser dignity concerning quality and method.

❷

International and Comparative Adult Education Research - Early Stages

In Germany – as in many other countries – comparative studies in adult education started after World War II, predominantly based on the comparison between East- and West-Germany[1]. In an international perspective they began to develop during the 1960s: ■ first in an emphatic and programmatic way, ■

then in the form of country reports, ■ finally by improving the methodical tools in order to facilitate quantifying and problem-orientated cross-national studies.

As far as I understand adult education, it is closely linked both scientifically and historically to pedagogy – as is international and comparative adult education research to comparative education[2].

Going beyond a mere German context I would at first like to briefly mention some events and dates which are commonly regarded as the early stages of comparative research within adult education.

According to popular descriptions comparative adult education research began at the Exeter-Conference, which A. Liveright organized in 1966. Even today Alexander N. Charters' reflections still show the lasting impression the conference made on him (Charters, Siddiqui 1989).

Another milestone in the development is marked by the conference in Nordborg, Denmark, which was held in 1972 and which was financially supported by UNESCO and the Danish Ministry of Science. For reasons of methodological awareness this could be seen as the beginning of comparative adult education research in a narrow sense[3]. The conference has gained importance not least due to a lecture given by George Z. F. Bereday who tried to orientate comparative adult education research towards comparative education research. His contribution was concluded by the recommendation that comparative adult education research should spontaneously follow the methodical standards that comparative education research had already

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[1] In the Federal Republic of Germany a synchronical form of comparative studies in education has mainly been promoted by Oskar Anweiler and Wolfgang Mitter, who started from surveying educational policy in different countries and later included questions of multiculturalism. Within adult education especially Horst Siebert and Joachim H. Knoll introduced methods of comparative research when examining educational policy in the German Democratic Republic and the Federal Republic of Germany. A final summary is given by Oskar Anweiler et al. (1990). See the introductory chapters on tasks and problems of comparative studies. For the theoretical and methodological side of comparative studies see publications by Dieter Berstecher and Jürgen Schriewer.

[2] See my position as described by Künzel (1994).

[3] See continuing reports in: International Journal of University Adult Education, An Official Publication of the International Congress of University Adult Education; the „Internationales Jahrbuch der Erwachsenenbildung" (International Yearbook of Adult Education) has from an early stage and repeatedly informed about distinguished colloquies which have shown the development of comparative studies; e.g. Knoll (1973).

reached. A proof of this methodical competence of comparative educational science was given at a UNESCO-Conference in Hamburg in 1971. The „International Congress of University Adult Education" followed this stimulus at the occasion of the Quinticentennial Conference in Ghana in 1975. However, there were already warnings about a mere adoption of the methods used in comparative education research. Looking at the IEA-Study, Colin J. Titmus thought that a quantifying empirical adult education research was limited both due to the poor data gathering and because of the open structure of adult education vice versa to school education. The guidelines to quantifying comparative educational research worked out by Noah and Eckstein (1969) could not be adopted for comparative adult education research. This opinion dates back 25 years. Today, I could not imagine any comparative research without stable data. With the increasing establishing of basic data banks[4] and the improvement of cross national studies (Leirman 1994, 1995) some of the deficiencies of comparative adult education research – especially as far as its empirical orientation is concerned – have been reduced.

Although a lot of work has been done on the development of a methodical repertoire since the early 1970s, the studies of that time do not hide the fact that descriptive national studies are most likely to be regarded as comparative adult education research work; more accurately they should be classified as international adult education research. This view could be proved and supported by country descriptions and materials of the ECLE-Project „Organization and Structure of Adult Education in Europe"[5] (ECLE 1978). The country reports to be found there are descriptive without any harmonizing scheme of categories, without any previous hypothesis and they regard themselves as a juxtaposition, which does not – for the time being – undertake a comparison. A comparative „manual" – the comparative sum of the long-term project work in the manner of the „problem approach" as it were – has been kept under lock and key by UNESCO in Paris ever since it was written.

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[4] See documents of World Bank, e.g. World Education Report 1993, Bonn 1994; Weltbank Atlas 1994, German version Bonn 1994; Weltentwicklungsbericht 1993, Kennzahlen der Weltentwicklung, Investitionen in die Gesundheit, German version Bonn 1993.

[5] European Centre for Leisure and Education: 21 Country Reports and 100 „Materials".

❸

International Adult Education Research - more than Country Reports? [6]

Whenever comparative research in the field of education or adult education research is brought into focus, the IEA-Study is referred to as an example which could accurately and definitely be called „comparison". Just for financial reasons this project is unique, it could not be transferred into other areas of the educational reality. Today, this undertaking is ongoing with the initiative of T.N. Postlethwaite, as could be verified by looking at the second edition of the *International Encyclopedia of National Systems of Education* (Postlethwaite 1995). Based on the material provided there, research could be undertaken on the „efficiency" of the educational system due to „social indicators". However, I doubt that this could be transferred to facts and problems of adult education that easily.

It should be added here that a definition of „efficiency" within the context of a certain system of education cannot simply be transferred to other countries. I am thinking about attempts by John Lowe to classify European systems of adult education with terms such as „traditional and non-traditional forms in adult education" or „traditional and innovative". This attempt, which ignores both the historical origins within a given situation and a certain cultural context, has failed as far as I can see.

In spite of this comment John Lowe may certainly take the credit for promoting country research within the framework of OECD and UNESCO (Lowe 1975, 1981) and for introducing both a phenomenon-descriptive approach and the „problem approach“ to comparative research. I especially recall the general account Retrospective International Survey of Adult Education, which was written for the UNESCO-World Conference on Adult Education in Tokyo and which was based on broad material contributed by the member countries of UNESCO. It could be remarked, of course, that the material collected for this work was often not statistically compatible, so that the conclusions are mere summaries. Yet, this has partly been corrected in the volume The Education of Adults in a World Perspective. Here, the main phenomena of adult education (structures, financing, legislation) are compared. Methodically these publications follow the „global approach“ (Lowe 1991) as propagated by Bereday (the limited validity and reliability of which has been proved adequately by now). In a volume which was to start the American Handbook of Adult Education, Alexander N. Charters further developed „Comparative Adult Education“, or – according to Roby Kidd – „Comparative Studies in Adult Education“, in so far as he based his comparison also on historical conditions and the socio-political environment (Charters, Siddiqui 1989); yet, the volume lacks a scientific-theoretical background for comparative adult education research in a historical dimension. In referring to publications by Colin J. Titmus (1989) and Peter Jarvis, further steps of the methodical development could be marked. I do not want to advocate empirical comparative educational research in the distinctiveness of Postlethwaite, who does not have a very high opinion of the latest developments in comparative adult education research. Yet, this may not lead to ignoring methods which have been tested elsewhere. Thus, during the early 1980s a research design created by World Bank and based on the scheme „financial input – educational output“ was adopted for adult education and it was checked whether by using „social indicators“ (Knoll 1983)[7] the comparison could testify questions of efficiency.

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[6] From the side of Comparative Education see esp. Schriewer (1994).

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[7] It should be mentioned that in adult education publications the indicators are very often mixed up with formal classifications of structures and contents.

Attempts to follow this line – for example with the project „Organization and Structure of Adult Education in Europe" (ECLE) have not been very convincing and have thus been given up later. Today, works by Peter S. Cookson show a revival of these approaches, however, in a more precise and changed form, which will be exposed to examination based on the comparison of two systems (namely Nicaragua and Costa Rica) (Cookson 1994).

On the whole, comparative adult education research is on the right path as far as an increasing methodical seriousness and its scientific and institutional integration into adult education research are concerned.

The value of country reports for the development of comparative adult education research should not be underestimated; undoubtedly they are juxtapositional steps towards comparison [8].

In general, it could be taken for granted that there is a strong link between „problem approach" and country-monographic comparison, which includes empirical elements.

❹

Tasks of International and Comparative Adult Education Research

If one supports the „problem approach" within comparative adult education research as a main characteristic of comparative research, a number of problems and tasks of adult education research could be named which are, so to speak, of a lasting interest. Generally regarding problem approaches towards adult education in European countries the following topics, among others, could be listed as objects of research: ■ multiculturalism and intercultural education[9], ■ programs against illiteracy, eradication of illness[10], ■ the balancing of vocational and general adult education, ■ the care for target groups such as migrants or unemployed people, ■ the „Europeanization" of adult education[11], ■ strategies of international and comparative research (Hake 1994; Leirman 1994; IBE 1993, 1994).

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[8] I refer to examples on the need of vocational and general qualification in different countries given by Lenz (1994); EU und Erwachsenenbildung/Weiterbildung (1995); Gam et al. (1993); KMK/BMBW (1992); Brock (1994); Schleicher (1993).

International and supranational organizations also place the main emphasis on different tasks. I admit that the following characteristics only take some subjectively chosen segments: ■ UNESCO place the main emphasis on programs against illiteracy and on post-literacy-work; ■ OECD concentrate on educational structures and educational-economical comparison; ■ the EU – through institutions such as CEDEFOP – mainly stress professional and vocational education, education and qualification of unemployed people, politico-educational and pedagogical measures of integration for migrants, education policy founded on cultural-geographical subsidiarity; ■ years ago the Council of Europe had already turned towards the broad field of telecommunication and the popularization of education (Knoll 1980); today, special emphasis is laid on „small countries and small languages" (Bray, Packert 1993).

❺

Concluding Remarks

Looking at the present status, dimension and scientific quality of comparative studies in adult education one can observe that, in general, a progress and rise has taken place. Three aspects may be selectively notified under this perspective: ■ A new branch within comparative studies in adult education has been developed dealing with subjects belonging to the historical dimension of adult education by means of comparative procedure. ■ The number of people engaged in comparative studies has been enlarged and has grown constantly within the last decade, especially in the European context. ■ The resources necessary for comparative studies have been increased – this refers to the financial basis and to data collection.

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[9] See for example Yaron, Poggeler (1993), Scheunpflug, Treml (1993). See as well the contributions on multiculturalism, ethnicity and racism in Internationales Jahrbuch der Erwachsenenbildung, 14, 1986.

[10] Alphabetisierung und Grundbildung Erwachsener in europäischen Industriestaaten, in: Internationales Jahrbuch der Erwachsenenbildung, 19/20, 1991/1992.

[11] Bildung in Europa für Europa – ein Thema der Erwachsenenbildung. In: Internationales Jahrbuch der Erwachsenenbildung, 22, 1994.

Firstly, as far as the newly – detected branch is concerned, I just refer to publications presented e.g. by Martha Friedenthal-Haase, Stuart Marriott, Barry J. Hake (1991) and Friedenthal-Haase (1998), which have enriched the knowledge of the historical roots of adult education, of the dependencies in an intersystematic perspective, of the material relevant to the special subject and to the resources available in different countries at different places. One has to bear in mind that in former descriptions of the adult education system in various countries the historical dimension (ECLE-project, EURO-DELPHI) was even included, but the approach made by the others mentioned is more comprehensive and is strongly directed towards comparative methods.

The second aspect might at first glance look quite astonishing. But most of the empirically based research is nowadays performed not only within the traditional research institutes such as universities, but also in agencies, institutes and working collectives of international and supranational organizations. Especially within OECD the research capacity is significant. Publications such as „Literacy, Economy and Society" give a notion of the possible standards in comparative studies, which no longer can be restricted to the private undertaking of a single person (OECD 1995). One should include the various researchers integrated into the network of ESREA, for instance John Field, Agnieszka Bron, Barry J. Hake, Kjell Rubenson, Walter Leirman, etc.

Thirdly, the resources of comparative studies have been improved within the last decade. This thesis could be confirmed by a number of evidences, such as the sponsoring of international projects such as the Delphi-project subsidized by the European community, or the comparative studies in the field of vocational education which are under discussion (Europäische Kommission 1996). UNESCO has promoted several comparative studies dealing with „Education for All throughout Life" (UNESCO 1996), parallel to OECD's study on Lifelong Learning, which demonstrates examples and data of selective member states (OECD 1997). At the same time, methodology has been refined by data collection and books of reference. A new recognition was especially dedicated to Social Indicators, a method which was primarily used by the Ribe catalogue, a list of indicators developed for the means of the ECLE project" (CERI 1996) [12]. As a follow-up of CONFINTEA V, the UNESCO World Conference on Adult Education in Hamburg 1997, an outcome of „the network of networks committee" has just been published and opens the worldwide operating archives for comparative research. The Material and the listings reach far beyond a directory of members and is aiming at a research strategy which allows for a more comprehensive approach and for data interpretation within comparative studies (Giere 1998).

But there are still obstacles to overcome, such as the lack of language expertise and handbooks of Adult Education Terminology, whereby comparison could only be a valid, reliable approach. This is a subject which would require further consideration.

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COMPARATIVE ADULT EDUCATION: SOME REFLECTIONS ON THE PROCESS

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This paper examines some of the formative influences which affect the current practice of comparative studies in adult education. Consideration is given to the nature of comparative studies and to their history, purposes, scope and principles. Some elements are unique to adult education, some are not. It is not intended to suggest methods of study, but identifies considerations that lie behind them.

What was billed as „The First International Conference on the Comparative Study of Adult Education" was held at Exeter, USA, in 1966. The report of its proceedings, entitled *The Exeter Papers*, defined adult education as a process involving those „who no longer attend school on a regular and full-time basis (unless full-time programmes are specially designed for adults)" and were over 21 years of age. To be called adult education, activities had to be „sequential and organized", undertaken „with the conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding or skills, appreciation and attitudes, or for the purpose of identifying and solving personal or community problems". (Liveright, Haygood 1968, p. 1). The only major differences between that definition and the one generally accepted today lay in the age limitation and the requirement that, in order to be included, full-time programmes should be specially designed for adults (UNESCO, 1976).

In addition to conventional classes, lectures and group discussion, among the methods and techniques specified as belonging to adult education, were self-directed learning, radio and television programmes. For the purposes of comparative study it was suggested that activities be classified in five categories according to their purpose: ■ remedial education; ■ education for vocational, technical and professional competence; ■ education for health, welfare and family living; ■ education for civic, political and community competence; ■ education for self-fulfillment (Liveright, Haygood 1968). Scholars have continued to find these categories useful. A first step towards comparative study was recommended.

To move towards a sound approach to the comparative study of adult education on international lines *it is proposed that we should concentrate on a cross-cultural approach to the understanding of adult education*. The substance of such study should be both anthropological and pedagogic – or, as we are increasingly saying, *andragogic*. In this approach we should try to determine how adult education functions in various cultures, how it relates to the historic, demographic, political and social background of the country and how these factors influence the development of the total educational system in various countries. Only by understanding the basic cultural and social forces in different countries, and by realizing how these factors influence the total educational system, will it be possible to gain a true understanding of adult education, enterprise and activities in a particular country and to develop theories and studies to compare the influence of these factors on adult education in different countries. A central and continuing question confronting those concerned with the comparative study of adult education is how the education system, and especially adult education, has developed, and how it is changing and emerging in each culture to fulfill the needs of the individual and the society in which he/she lives (Liveright, Haygood 1968, p. 11).

The conference discussed both the theory of comparative studies and whether they would be of value „operationally", judging at that time that efforts should be restricted to projects having an immediate practical relevance.

The influence of *The Exeter Papers* was quite small. Only twenty-five participants were listed (all men), of whom only seven came from outside North America. Their view of adult education was essentially that of UNESCO, as expressed at the international conferences of Elsinore (1949) and Montréal (1960) (Helly

1962, p. 5). This was not surprising, because the first had been dominated by Western Europeans and the second by North Americans. Largely through UNESCO's influence that view was spreading worldwide. The range of activities it admitted was hardly different from that accepted thirty years later. It did include education for occupational purposes and the pursuit of formal qualifications, which, following British and Scandinavian practice then, had not been recognized at Elsinore. On the other hand it was still wedded to the ideals of liberal education. The classic emphasis, as Hartley Grattan had described some years before, remained „the improvement of men in terms of secular knowledge, morals, or spiritual understanding, and only incidentally, or by implication, in terms of earning power" (Grattan 1959, p. 10). Although the needs of both individuals and society were to be met, it is noticeable that *The Exeter Papers*, in true American fashion, put the former first.

A quite rudimentary view was taken of the way comparative studies should go in the immediate future. There was hardly any discussion of what was to be compared. Clearly it was assumed, even if not specified, that one would compare the total adult education provision in different states, not particular elements of that provision. The Exeter meeting did not, however, go so far as to consider how that might be done, but limited itself to listing the information that would be necessary in order to do it. Several points were made, with which scholars of the 1990s would not disagree. It would be necessary to understand the cultural, economic and social forces working within each society and the way they influenced education. A central question was considered to be how education, especially adult education had developed, how it was changing and was emerging to fill needs. It was to be seen as a phenomenon in a process of change.

Since Exeter comparative adult education has developed along the divergent lines adumbrated there, and theoretical studies have moved away further from the concerns of the educator in the field. Following the example of comparative (school) education in their attempts to establish adult education as a profession, adult educators have managed to some extent to introduce it as a subject of study and teaching into universities and other institutions of higher education. In some countries, particularly in Europe, where this movement has gone furthest, but also to some extent in North America, a subject must become a science (in the German sense of Wissenschaft) or discipline in order to justify its inclusion in a university. It is not sufficient that adult education should be a field of activity, or comparative adult education a method of enquiry; they must establish bodies of knowledge and theory unique to themselves.

Up to the present, however, it has been a minor concern of the majority of those engaged in the theory and practice of adult education. Work which may have more immediate effects on the provision of educational opportunities for adults has been both more acceptable to educators and more likely to attract funding. In all its forms a published study sets out to contribute closely to what we do and how we do it, rather than to theory.

It is generally accepted that most of what is included under the rubric of comparative studies in adult education, at least in its published form, does not involve comparison in the strict sense. Descriptions of total provision in a single state, of which so many published works consist (ECLE 1977-84), are pre-comparative studies, as we have seen. Frequently a number of such single nation studies, or accounts of specific phenomena in different societies, are published side by side, with only a tenuous linkage between them. In this juxtaposition it is left to the reader to carry out the comparison. This is largely the case with single nation descriptions, for their target public is usually people of countries other than the one being described. It is assumed that they will make a comparison with their own society.

In the other principal categories of research, descriptive comparisons, analytical comparisons and overviews, the first is restricted to identifying the differences or similarities between phenomena in two or more states. Any ordinary reader, whether a specialist of adult education or not, ought to be able to do that. It is, moreover, difficult to see how it enhances one's understanding. Descriptive comparison is best undertaken as a stage in analysis or review. Analytical comparison goes a step further. It attempts to understand the why and wherefore of the similarities and differences in terms of the social, cultural, economic and political forces operating upon the phenomena. Examples of this analysis are comparatively rare, and in-depth ones are rarer still.

Much more frequent are overviews. In an overview, all or part of adult education provision in a group of countries is examined in order to identify and, in the more sophisticated cases, analyses are given of the common features. The range of such studies may be global (Lowe 1982), cover a geographical region (Gajardo 1983), or comprise states having certain shared characteristics (Vélis 1990). There is scope for much variation of emphasis. Some overviews stress the geographical area, others the phenomena. Although the object may be to find similarities, differences have their importance too, not least because they raise the question, why states are alike in this, but dissimilar in that. It is plain that comparison, descriptive or analytical, is a pre-condition of overviews, even though it is omitted from – or only given in sketchy outline – in the published form of most of them.

All forms of comparative work involve comparison by somebody. Single nation studies are directed almost entirely at foreign audiences. To make sense of these studies, readers will inevitably compare them with their knowledge of their own national provisions. In juxtapositions, in addition to comparing the phenomena of the nations included, if their own country is not included in the study, readers will compare those that are with their own. Again, in a descriptive or analytical study, unless phenomena known to the reader (which will usually mean, from their own society) form part of it, then the reader must be expected, consciously or not, to make a comparison with his own country. The unknown is only to be understood with reference to the known.

The reasons for choosing one kind of comparative study in preference to another are multifarious. It made sense in earlier days to provide accounts of a single nation provision as part of the process of constructing a global map of adult education. To some extent it still does, since there remain gaps to be filled. Moreover, the picture drawn a quarter of a century ago may need to be significantly updated (Hall 1970), or even, in the case of some more recent ones, completely redrawn (ECLE 1977-84). The existence of apparently readymade material has made the comparison of the total provision in one society with that of another particulary attractive. It would be justified, it was thought, because it would help one to see a regional, if not a global entity in adult education, instead of a patchwork of individual territories. I once shared this view, which I now believe to be open to serious criticism. The intention of most single nation studies has been to tell the world what is being done in country X. As such they have been unsuitable to the role of all-purpose information banks for comparative study. They are like large-scale maps, in which the cartographer can only include some of the geographical features, and which show cities as dots and smooth out twists and turns of rivers and roads. A map published in an atlas for the general public will give prominence to different things from one drawn for a more specialised group. What the author believes important for the world will be different from what is needed as the context to a specific comparative research. Ideally one would draw a separate single nation picture, emphasizing those contextual features most relevant to the object of the investigation. Since that is not practical, single nation studies for the general reader need to be supplemented for the purpose in mind, even if that involves comparison of total provision in countries A, B and C.

If juxtapositions make any sense at all, apart from adding to the global patchwork of knowledge, they must be designed for a readership capable of making its own comparisons. Juxtapositions are frequently the outcome of research commissioned by or directed at governments. Ministers and officials want to know what other countries are doing, having in mind the possibility that they may learn from these states. Officials have their own knowledge base and criteria, which they may wish to use themselves for comparison in preference to those of the researcher.

A considerable stimulus has been given to comparative studies by the proliferation of international organizations, global and regional, since World War Two. Primarily inspired by the perceived need for cross-national communication and co-operation as a means of preserving peace and promoting development, such bodies have been the principal initiators and funders of comparative work in adult education (Titmus 1994, pp. 153-175). Inter-governmental agencies, such as UNESCO, OECD and the World Bank, which have been the most active as they have had the largest funds, have avoided actual comparison, whether descriptive or analytical. In pursuit of their goals they have stressed common actions and needs. In order to encourage friendship they have avoided offending member states. Comparison may risk giving offence, because it brings out differences as well as similarities and may thus be suspected of implying criticism of certain states. This was one of the reasons why the ECLE project avoided comparisons. Juxtaposition does not have this disadvantage.

Nor do overviews, the favourite form of international organizations. Indeed they have the political advantage of taking the broad view, underplaying the peculiarity of individual societies and suggesting a relevance going beyond the states specifically included in the research. Above all they promote the goals of sponsoring organizations by demonstrating the common characteristics and interests of members. The differences that they do record tend to show that states can be alike without losing their individual identities.

In the history of education, direct comparison of practices or institutions of one country with those of another has mostly been undertaken with the purpose of borrowing what may have been considered useful. George Bereday called the 19th century the period of borrowing (Bereday 1966). Since then cultural transfer of this kind has fallen into disrepute. Comparativists have argued that to attempt to transplant a practice from one country into another is unsound (Holmes 1981; pp. 24-25). A product of one cultural soil is unlikely to succeed in a foreign one. This condemnation has been too sweeping (Titmus 1991, pp. 13-31). Cultural borrowing and imposition still continue, and have been of some value, as the introduction of the English form of university and education into tropical Africa and the spread of the University of the Third Age from Toulouse demonstrate (Titmus, Steele 1995). In adult education, even if comparison is rarely undertaken with the intention of discovering whether there may be some practice that could usefully be taken over, it is still believed that information useful to the researcher or the sponsors may be gained from such exercises (Charnley 1975).

Comparative research cannot be objective, any more than other activities in the field of social science: the observer may not affect what is observed, as happens in physics, but (s)he influences our understanding of it. No social study can encompass the complete reality of the subject of study. Some choice of viewpoint is made, only some elements can be selected for examination, ultimately by the observer. (S)he does not do this, however, as a free, objective reaction to the facts, but is influenced by a multitude of forces. Researchers themselves, sponsors and the target public for any published outcome exert significant effect upon the purposes of comparative studies and the forms and methods employed. In some states too, even where government is not the sponsor, it exercises a powerful restraint upon the researcher, not only in what (s)he attempts to do, but also on the way (s)he goes about it. This has been the case of the former Socialist states of Eastern Europe, of Spain and Portugal under dictatorships, of Greece under the colonels, of many Latin American countries and other states of the Third World. Other powerful interests, in particular religious, ideological and economic states, also impose constraints. This has caused arguments about who could acceptably make comparisons. During CROASAEE, which brought together European scholars from the then socialist states and the capitalist West, it was thought that ideological and cultural differences were such that no single participant could be expected to do so. A small group from both sides of the political divide would have been equally suspect, because some states might have felt excluded. A collective of people from all the countries represented in the project, desirable because sensitivities were national as well as ideological, would have risked having to make so many compromises that the result would have been bland and uninformative.

The more people engaged in comparison, the longer and more complex the operation. For the reasons given above, and for cost and organizational reasons, it seems most practical to confide comparison to an individual or, at most, a small group, preferably on friendly terms being aware and understanding of each other's biases, even if they do not share them. To counteract bias, it would seem as important to researchers themselves and to those who read their reports, that they should be aware of the social, cultural, political and economic forces which have moulded those undertaking study and the orientation of the research, as it is to understand the context of what is observed. In practice, no conscious effort to achieve this, or to make it known to the consumers of reports of investigations, is ever made, as far as I know.

There has been a shortage of known objective facts about adult education worldwide to balance the subjective influences of people engaged in comparative study. Scholars have not engaged in much empirical study of adult education while it is in action. Lack of resources in time, money and personnel largely account for that. There have been few of us engaged in the systematic study of the field. Only recently have governments and commercial organizations, now the principal providers of learning opportunities for adults, taken sufficient interest in it to finance study of it. They tend to want results immediately applicable to practice, to the detriment of sustained, fundamental research.

Much of adult education, and some of its most characteristic work, has been small scale, locally initiated and ephemeral. Obsessed with doing it, those involved have ignored the desirability of simultaneously monitoring it, or even recording the experience after the event. In any case, with resources barely sufficient for the educational project itself, monitoring has been out of the question. Reliable information about those learning experiences has therefore been lost, particularly if experiences have not been replicated, as has so often happened. It must be said that there has been a tendency to see in such ephemera little importance beyond their immediate environment. UNESCO's attempt to draw up a standard classification of education for statistical purposes excluded short courses, on the grounds that they did not offer organized and sustained study (UNESCO 1976, p. 18). This has meant that a large part of the nature and ethos of adult education, presented as a one-off programme, short – even as short as a one-day school or single meeting, and probably organized by a voluntary body – may not have been adequately analysed at all and certainly not in comparative studies.

Failure to record and preserve information has been a characteristic of adult education generally, even large-scale projects provided or funded by international organizations, such as the European Community. As permanent and recognizable structures have grown in number and in size, there have been changes in their attitude. Not entirely for the better perhaps. Fluidity and sensitivity to changing circumstances have been features of adult education, a necessity of its very nature, according to its practitioners, and one which they have proudly set against the rigidity of initial education. A price of increasing size and recognition of its importance has, however, been dependence on larger funds, and on those, mainly public authorities and commercial companies, who provide them. This has been accompanied by greater institutionalization to meet the demands made upon it and less flexibility of response. To some observers it has ceased to be a movement, conscious of its past and looking to an enthusiastically worked future, and become an institution, less aware of what has been and may be, preoccupied with an ongoing present.

There has, however, been a positive side to this development. Size and importance of expenditure has forced adult educators to render account of their activities to those upon whom they are dependent, that is, they have to keep records. In particular they have to make statistical returns. From a comparative point of view one of the insurmountable obstacles has been not merely the lack of quantitative date in a comparable form, but the lack of any at all. In our own recent study of continuing education in higher education we could find no statistics of the contribution of German employers (Titmus, Knoll, Wittpoth 1993). The importance of this gap in knowledge is a matter of debate. No doubt under the influence of comparative (initial) education, in which quantitative research has dominated for many years (in extreme cases it appeared that if one could not count it, it didn't signify) there have been a number of cases where scholars have felt that comparative studies were impractical. That was a factor in the failure of CROASAEE to undertake any. In the report of a major American project it was explicitly given as the reason why an intended comparison was abandoned (Peterson and others 1982).

On the other hand there have been those who have discounted the value of quantification altogether. To what extent this attitude has been a case of sour grapes is difficult to assess. Many scholars, however, who would not go so far, would certainly point out that numbers do little to provide information about the what, the why, the how and the where to of adult education, which they would consider to be as important as the how much. Ideally both quantitative and qualitative information are desirable for comparative studies and the relative utility of each will depend on the subject and purpose of the research.

Apart from the increasing but still insufficient amount of quantitative data, since the Second World War there has been a considerable growth of documentation about adult education, which is proving of value to comparative researchers. The main sources have been international organizations, not only the inter-governmental ones, but non-governmental bodies, such as the International Council for Adult Education, and regional ones, for example the Asian and South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education. Precious though this may be, it is to be treated critically by scholars. As an example, between 1977 and 1979 the OECD published *Learning Opportunities for Adults*, a four-volume study of what was alleged to be the current situation. Some parts of it were already so far out of date at the time of publication that they were quite misleading (OECD 1977-79).

Many reports, on which comparison has been based, provide snapshots of a phenomenon, freezing it as it was at the time it was studied. Perhaps partly as a consequence of this, many contributions to comparative study present this kind of picture. They thus constitute a falsification. To get near to the truth any study of adult education, including comparison, needs to treat it as a continuing process. It is moving from a past, which has largely shaped it and continues to do so through a present, which cannot be captured because it is already past by the time of publication, towards a future, to which it aspires, but of which it is uncertain. Both the past and the future have often been neglected. This was the case of a number of the CROASAEE studies, in some instances of which, it must be said, the failure to give weight to past influences was ideologically motivated (ECLE, Czechoslovakia 1977-84). Of course, the lack of records, which has already been mentioned, may limit one's historical understanding, the all too frequent obsession of sponsors – particularly politicians and commercial ones – with the short-term, may discourage much attention to anything but the immediate past or future. Even so, comparative study fails if it does not show adult education, organization and institutions as well as students and learning experiences, in constant change. One of the most significant tasks of comparison is to examine similarities and differences between societies in the nature and rate of the change.

The linguistic confusion, noted in *The Exeter Papers*, has not been cleared up, with perceptible effects on comparative studies. If anything the confusion has increased, in part because of the spread of adult education worldwide, in part because theorists have included within its purview ever more activities, some of which have their own specialist vocabulary. The terms used to express ideas and actions reflect the concepts behind them. However long they have been used, and however much what they denote has changed, to some extent the original concepts enter into the meaning attributed to the term by native users today. International organizations, having a particular interest in cross-national communication, have tried to clarify the adult education meaning of the principal terms used in describing the field. The UNESCO *Terminology of Adult Education* was plainly seen to meet a need (Titmus and others 1979). Covering only English, French and Spanish, it has spawned extensions in several other languages, including Chinese (People's Republic of China 1985). Several difficulties have, however, emerged. Although the editors pointed out that their work was intended to record the sense in which terms were used, not to lay down how they ought to be, a normative authority has frequently been attributed to the *Terminology*. The editors also stated that adult education terminology not only „is characterized rather by its richness than its precision", but it is „in constant evolution". It has been disappointing therefore, that UNESCO has not seen fit to publish any updates. It is a matter of some concern too that, in the absence of a more up-to-date replacement, versions in and including other languages still continue to be produced, although it was published so long ago and was, in the opinion of its editors, already out-of-date in some respects by the time it appeared. A Japanese glossary, translated from the Terminology, appeared in 1995, prepared by Professor Katsuko Sato and his colleagues of the Faculty of Education, University of Tokyo.

It would seem appropriate to close this paper by considering a possibility, which comparative studies in adult education have done much to raise and which should significantly affect them. *The Exeter Papers* referred to national systems as though they existed. In this paper the term, „system", has been avoided, because it would have been misleading. At national level, adult education has never formed more than a conglomeration and globally it is a conglomeration of conglomerations. During the CROASAEE project is was possible to believe that it was moving towards systematization, but there have been few signs of it since. Nevertheless, the basic assumption of most of those people who claim to engage in the comparative study of adult education has been that their field of study constituted a coherent whole. It was, if not a discipline in its own right, a sub-discipline of education. It possessed attributes peculiar to itself and common to all its activities and institutions worldwide. Ironically, one achievement of comparative studies, the development of which has been intended to some degree to reinforce these claims, has been to cast doubt upon them.

The premise that adults learn in different ways from children and adolescents has led to a definition of the process which includes in the territory of adult education all learning activities in which adults are engaged. The outcome has been both expansion and fragmentation of the field. The common aims, which *The Exeter Papers* wished to have identified, do not appear to exist. Not only are purposes diverse, but the goals of some activities may seem incompatible with those of others. The determinants of organization, methods, or even participants may lie less in criteria of adulthood than in the object of the exercise and the status of the target public, as workers, students in higher education, or members of a family, for example, and in the nature of the sponsors and providers. Many of these people are likely to see themselves as taking part in, providing or promoting higher education, worker's education, or health education, for example, rather than adult education.

Various hypotheses have been proposed as to how adults learn and therefore ought to be taught, most of them influenced by their authors' beliefs of how adults should learn and to what and as much as by observation of how they do. A number of them offer helpful guidance in certain contexts, usually those areas of adult education with which their authors have been principally concerned. Theories of developmental psychology have been extended from childhood to cover the whole lifespan. They suggest, for example, that there may not be one stage, to be called adulthood, during which learners have common needs and ways of learning, but several, and that people should be treated differently according to stage. Despite claims of universal application made for some of these ideas, no one has yet devised theories of adult learning and teaching which are generally accepted as valid for the whole of adult education in all societies.

In the face of its fragmentation there is evidence of frustration among those scholars who, in pursuit of a „science of adult education" have been trying to discover a unity, and some doubts are growing about the possibility of their success (Mader 1992, p. 3; Gieseke and others 1988). In some countries, of course, post-initial education has not been considered a distinctive sector, in some others, for example France, the unifying element of its manifestations has not been seen as the adulthood of the participants. There are now some signs that, in countries where it has been strongly entrenched, the idea of adult education may be under threat. Since 1991 in Sweden it has ceased to be used as an organizing concept of governance (Rubenson 1992, pp. 317-335).

However, the fact that its unifying concept is being called into question does not imply that the whole range of institutions and practices which are now called adult education will cease to exist, or their importance diminish. It does lead us to consider the possibility that a new conceptual and organizational framework may be needed. Speculation on the outcome of these considerations would be out of place in this article. Whatever they might be, though, comparative studies will not be less valuable, indeed they may grow in value. Only with the aid of comparative studies are we likely to discover

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whether a unifying concept of and practical or theoretical relevances is possible, and if so, what it is likely to be.

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STANDARDS FOR COMPARATIVE ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH

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❶

Introduction

The topic, „Standards for Comparative Adult Education Research“, is relatively new in the field of Adult and Continuing Education in the United States. The usage of the term Lifelong Learning is often used to encompass learning for all ages and thus avoids categories such as children, youth and adults. In this presentation, the term Adult Education is used synonymously for Andragogy with the focus on the adult learning in the context of lifelong learning.

In the United States, there has been considerable attention to standards in education at the national, state and local levels with the focus primarily on schools. A standard is defined by Webster as „something established for use as a rule or basis for comparison“. There are three aspects of standards: setting, implementing and assessing. A standard or benchmark is necessary as a basis for determining change, for measuring the present status and for identifying change. Standards are necessary for determining the nature and extent of learning and other aspects of Adult Education including Comparative Adult Education.

In a Kappan Special Section on Standards[1] there was no mention in any of the articles on adult or continuing education in this otherwise excellent issue of the journal. In a search of Educational Resources Informational Center (ERIC), there were 31 entries referring to academic standards and adult education, and 32 entries referring to academic standards and continuing education. These publications included topics such as accreditation, minorities' issues, off-campus programs and others, but most of them were peripheral to academic standards. In 1986 the Commission of Professors of AAACE (American Association of Adult and Continuing Education) produced a document, Standards of Graduate Study in Adult Education, but it had only limited practical use. Another example was New York State Education Department's certificate plan developed about 1952 for instruction that required a number of hours of instruction for practicing educators of adults in public schools, but the plan was only recognized for a couple of years.

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[1] Phi Delta Kappan (June 1993). Bloomington, IN.

The program *America 2000: An Education Strategy (1991, p. 29)* initiated by President George Bush, and a continuation of it as *Goals 2000* by President Bill Clinton, are an expression of major concern for improving the standards of education as national goals. In America 2000 there is a reference to Adult Education „for the rest of us, yesterday's students and today's workers, to become a nation of students", but it seems to have received little attention at the implementation stage. The Annotated Resource Guide by Charters and Siddiqui (1989) cites some references related to the topic (1989).

The above references are related to standards in Adult Education but not specifically to Standards for Comparative Adult Education research. Comparative Adult Education may benefit from the research at other levels of comparative education and of other fields by adapting and transferring relevant research findings and research methodology.

The present research base, and even the consideration of standards in Adult Education is so limited that it is of little assistance in developing a plan for further research. However, educators of adults have previously engaged challenging tasks in the field of Adult and Continuing Education and, hence, let me proceed with some enthusiasm to discuss Standards and Comparative Adult Education Research. I wish to add that much of this material has been published in books and articles that I have written but has not been focused on this topic.

Some discussion of the context of the topic follows.

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Mission of Adult Education

The mission of Adult Education is „to assist adults to acquire further control of their current circumstances and their future destinies. Control enables adults to participate more intelligently and responsibly in the political, working, social, cultural, family and religious environment of society; and to improve the quality of their lives" (Charters 1986, p. 3). The focus of the mission is on the learning by the adult, which is the bottom line.

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Principles of Education

Adult Education is based on the same principles as for other areas of education. Because adults have more and a greater range of experiences, the application of principles to practice may be quite different for adults in various stages of adulthood than for infants, children and youth. In general, the application of principles to practice changes as learners move through the life span and as they move along a continuum of other-directed to more self-directed. In brief, self-directed means that adults have control over what, when and how they learn to achieve their mission as stated above. A Learning Preference Assessment which includes aspects of self-direction and suggests criteria for it, is a way for individuals to indicate the extent of their preference to be self-directed (Guglielmino 1991). In Adult Education the focus is on the adult learner who may learn as a unique individual when confronted with learning opportunities which are part of the infrastructure known as education.

Comparative Education is an area of study within the field of Education. Likewise Comparative Adult Education is a part of Adult Education and the same principles of research apply to both of them.

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Definition of Comparative Adult Education

A definition of Comparative Adult Education as used in this article is from „Comparing Adult Education Worldwide" (Charters 1983):

Comparative adult education is defined as: **a)** statements about the theory, principles, methodology and other topics of continuing education related to adult education, and **b)** comparative study of the topic in one or more situations.

Intra-national is the comparison of a topic in one or more situations within one country and international is comparison of the topic in two or more situations in different countries. A comparative adult education study extends beyond descriptions of data of adult educations and/or the juxtaposition of adult education data. There is analysis and comparison to identify similarities and dissimilarities.

In the context of this book, Comparative Adult Education is limited to the international level, which means that research extends to two or more countries with all of the associated complexities.

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The Need for Comparative Adult Education

Many reasons for developing theory and practice in Comparative Adult Education have been discussed. At this stage in history, three reasons that seem dominant for Comparative Adult Education research at the international level are cited.

One is suggested by the indications that the world is moving toward a global international community or entity. Accordingly, it is necessary to have information about each of the countries that are part of this movement and to have comparative data indicating similarities and differences between countries in order that international developments may proceed more efficiently and effectively.

A second reason focuses on peace. While there are currently national uprisings and revolutions and also some wars between nations, there now seems to be a greater desire for peace. Also, the United Nations seems to be increasingly active world-wide in the peace making process. Research in many areas, including Comparative Adult Education, assists in developing co-operation and understanding which is a basic for peace.

A third reason for Comparative Adult Education is suggested by the mission of Adult Education, as previously stated, which focuses on learning by adults. It seems reasonable that Comparative Adult Education Research will provide information about aspects of adult learning in many countries. Having knowledge about adult learning at the international level thus enables all adults to maximize their learning opportunities.

Comparative Adult Education Research in two of more countries, when developed and analyzed as part of a rigorous research design, provides similarities and dissimilarities. This data is useful in developing the theory and practice of Adult Education that may promote a world community, foster world peace, and assist adults to learn.

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Determination of Standards for Comparative Adult Education Research

When the reasons for Comparative Adult Education are accepted, and a commitment is made to them, then standards should be developed for conducting a research project. A previous question may be asked: Who is involved in the setting, implementing and assessing of standards, and who influences the decisions about them? While learning may take place whenever and wherever adults have access to knowledge many learning opportunities for adults are provided by agencies.

Adult Education in the United States is not co-ordinated at the national, state or local levels – and this is true, both as a policy matter and in practice. The types of agencies participating in some Adult Education activity include the following: ■ business and industry; ■ communication enterprises; ■ galleries and museums; ■ government agencies; ■ international organizations; ■ labor organizations and unions; ■ military; ■ post-secondary institutions; ■ religious bodies; ■ schools; ■ correctional facilities; ■ special groups (elderly, handicapped, minorities, illiterates); ■ sports and recreation organizations; ■ vocational and professional associations; ■ and voluntary (not for profit) bodies (Charters 1987).

This expansive array of agencies in the United States indicates diversity in all phases of the learning opportunities often called programs which they develop, and it suggests the complexity of providing standards in the United States. It makes it even more difficult to make comparisons of the United States with other countries.

The agencies even of a given type are not generally co-ordinated although some organizations such as the military and large corporations (e.g., General Motors) do have some internal standards and do award some form of recognition to employees for successfully meeting standards. Sponsors also have a role in standards as do administrators, teachers, government, accrediting bodies and many other individuals and organizations. There is a multitude of players in the area of standards in Adult Education in the United States, and they are generally without co-operation or even co-ordination of them.

It has been stated previously that the mission of Adult Education is to assist adults to learn and that learning is an individual behavior. Accordingly, it is the adult who decides what is to be and is learned. Adults may be motivated and assisted to learn, but they cannot be forced. Other individuals and sponsors can decide the nature and extent of learning opportunities to which adults may react and thus learn; however, they cannot mandate learning, because learning itself is the prerogative of the adult.

The above discussion means that there is great diversity in who sets the standards. There is also great variation in the implementation and assessment of standards. Even within a university, different people control standards for example in the same course with duplicate sections of the same course. In practice, different people can be responsible for each of the three aspects of standards in a given agency. The result is that in the United States the situation is very complex, and to date very little is being done about standards or about any coordination of them.

With standards it is possible to compare Adult Education in various parts of the United States, even to compare standards in two or more countries. It is possible that standards can be set by researchers in Comparative Adult Education and then they can determine whether similar individuals or groups in different countries are relating to the standards.

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Methodology/Design for a Comparative Adult Education Research Project

The methodology or design of a Comparative Adult Education research project extends from the beginning statement of purpose through the analysis of results which is similar to research projects in other fields of education. The methodology is a plan for conducting research and implementing standards. The stages of a research project may be stated in the form of methodological questions such as given below. The responses to the questions reflect the standards for that stage of a specific research project, and thus they become the benchmarks from which to identify change. **1.** What is the importance of the project?

2. What is the objective of the project? **3.**What are the assumptions underlying the project? **4.** In what ways will the project contribute to principles or practice of the field of Adult Education? **5.** In what ways will the design or methodology enable the project to be completed? **6.** What evidence or data is required to achieve the goals of the project? **7.** Where is the data accessible? **8.** In which two or more countries are comparable data accessible? **9.** What is the best method accessible for collecting the data? **10.** How much of the data can be juxtaposed so that a comparison may be made of selected factors? **11.** How may the similarities and dissimilarities be identified? **12.** How are the results disseminated, and from whom is there feedback? **13.** How is the research project evaluated?

For the responses to be useful as a basis for comparison the standards must be stated in terms that include the nature of, and the extent or level of the content.

There are general guidelines to be considered in setting, implementing and assessing standards for any research project, including Comparative Adult Education. The following guidelines may be considered: ■ *Credibility* – the standards are to be credible to the audience of the research project. ■ *Internal consistency* – the standards of the stages are to be consistent with each of the other stages of the research project. ■ *Flexibility* – without losing the rigor, flexibility is to be provided to adapt to foreseeable developments for which adjustment may be made in the research project. ■ *Constant and continuous monitoring* – as the research project develops there is a critical need for monitoring at each stage.

These guidelines may be considered when responding to the above questions at each stage of the research project.

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Methods for a Comparative Adult Education Research Project

There are sometimes differences in the use of the terms, methodology and methods. This presentation is concerned with the overall methodology or design of a Comparative Adult Education research project. The methods used in conducting a Comparative Adult Education research project are only a part of the overall methodology. (See question 9 on Methodology in the upper chapter).

The criteria for the selection of methods for a research project in Comparative Adult Education are the same as for a research project in other fields of education. Some of the criteria are reflected in questions such as the ones stated below, following the same format used earlier in this presentation for the stages of methodology of research project. Standards for the selection of a method are reflected by the responses to these questions. Questions that reflect criteria for the selection of a method for a research project may include: **1.** In what way is it appropriate for the collection of the data? **2.** Are the time and place appropriate for the use of it? **3.** In what ways does it facilitate feedback or interaction? **4.** What is its cost effectiveness? **5.** To what extent are the support services for it, such as facilities and equipment accessible? **6.** What are the ethical and political implications of it, and are they acceptable to the sponsors as well as others involved? **7.** What aspects of it are unique for the research project?

The choice of a research method depends on the specific topic of the research project. Recognizing that each method has its unique strengths and weaknesses, more than one method may be used. Decisions have to be made as to whether to use qualitative or quantitative techniques, and the issues of reliability, objectivity and validity must also be addressed. Likewise instruments and statistical techniques are to be selected for recording and analyzing data. The recent developments in technology have made a contribution in facilitating research in Comparative Adult Education. While technology is not a method per se, it provides particularly useful tools for recording data that have been collected and operates as an efficient and effective means for analyzing data consistent with the research design.

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Societal Influences in Comparative Adult Education

An intra-national Comparative Adult Education study may have many societal influences external to the project that affect the topic being compared. The influences may be even more pronounced in a research project at the international level involving two or more countries. One of the many societal influences on a Comparative Adult Education research project is the different educational systems in each country. For example, the United States Constitution relegates education as an exclusive right of the states and not the Federal government, whereas in most other countries the Federal government has control in varying degrees. This factor impacts on Adult Education.

A second societal influence that is difficult to control is the language of various countries. While there are thesauruses such as the UNESCO IBE Education Thesaurus (1991), and Terminology of Adult Education, a 24-language dictionary (Hovenberg), barriers remain. The statement on translation by Jütte in this volume provides a discussion on bridging between languages. Languages differences do require consideration in a Comparative Adult Education research project.

A third societal influence on a research project is the cultural environment. While it may be possible to conduct a Comparative Education research project that is cultural free, it is not probable.

It may be possible, however, to control the effects of these societal influences and to select and develop research projects where cultural factors are minimal. The researchers considering influences must be aware of subtleties particularly in this area.

In Comparative Adult Education, when societal influences such as the ones cited above may be impossible or difficult to control, it may be possible to identify the influence of them on the research project. In some cases, it may be appropriate to defer the study rather than conduct one that does not meet the research criteria. It may be possible to identify uncontrollable influences and by a deductive process determine the influence in the research project and then incorporate it into the statement of findings.

When the researcher has developed the standards that are expected, it may then be possible to identify or describe the control and/or the possible societal influence on the stages of the project and, finally, the results. The sensitivity and specific competency of the researcher are particularly important in this area of influences.

It is, clear, however that the data collected are probably only a part of the data available and accordingly the findings are limited. Generalizations may be construed by the researcher. The responses to the listed questions of methodology and method provide the standards of each stage which together form the standard for the entire research project.

The first two aspects, setting and implementation of standards for Comparative Adult Education Research, have been discussed. The third aspect of standards is assessment. The concern for assessment is addressed in *Landmarks in Adult Education* (Charters, Hilton 1989, pp. 187-188) in the summary of the responses to the topic Evaluation Standards, Criteria, Validation Processes of the eight Landmark Programs in Landmarks, as follows: ■ The most visible finding about the evaluative selections of these programs is that formal evaluation, especially of a variety that might involve measurement, was hardly employed. ■ No statement on the subject of evaluating student work is more sweeping or more revealing than that found in the study about the Swedish Study Circles:

„The whole notion of evaluation and standards contradicts the professed ethos of the study circle". But apart from evaluation of student work, we notice other apparent lapses in evaluative data collection. Most programs have some records of participation rates (although by no means all), but we rarely see any examples here of measurements of learning (nor, let us say, as measures of student work but as measures of teacher or program effectiveness), nor of qualitative data in which participants might describe the learning processes which they experienced.

Since these programs were selected as International Landmarks, it is somewhat discouraging to consider what the policy and procedures of programs of perhaps lesser recognition are doing in the area of evaluation and standards in Adult Education in the United States and elsewhere. Also, the data base of research in assessment in Comparative Adult Education is only recently becoming identified and expanded.

It is noted that in this article the concern is not with the assessment of learning by adults but concerned with the assessing of a Comparative Adult Education research project. Moreover, it may be that the attitude of the educators of adults towards both types of activities may be somewhat similar.

As previously stated, assessing and evaluating are necessary to know if the set standards are implemented and achieved. Standards for each of the stages of a research project previously cited are the benchmarks for assessing its achievement. The adherence to the standard of each of the parts in total becomes the assessment of the research project. The setting, implementing and assessing of standards need to be increasingly addressed. The rigor with which this is done affects the quality of Comparative Adult Education research.

Fundamentally the standards for methodology and method in Comparative Adult Education research are the same as those in other fields of education.

This presentation has pointed out the lack of past attention to standards in Comparative Adult Education research, the limited literature on the subject and the growing interest in the issue. The topic of standards has been examined from the perspective of the three aspects, namely, setting, implementating and evaluating. Standards must be specified for each stage (include methods) in the methodology/design of a project. The current state of the application of standards to Comparative Adult Education, the unique aspects and problems of their application together with some possible solutions are discussed.

Standards in Comparative Adult Education research is a relatively new topic of interest to educators of adults. It is encouraging that, through the activities of ISCAE, the standards in Comparative Adult Education Research are given some priority.

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COMPARATIVE THINKING AND THE STRUCTURES OF ADULT COGNITION: AN EPISTEMOLOGICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL CHALLENGE FOR COMPARATIVE ADULT EDUCATION

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Comparative Adult Education: Reflecting on the Past

Over 30 years have now elapsed since the first pioneering International Conference on the Comparative Study of Adult Education took place in Exeter, New Hampshire (USA) during June 1966. Due to a recurring lament about the lack of research in the comparative study of adult education and the lack of an organizational structure to assist the process, the conference and subsequent publication (Liveright, Haygood 1968) took a first step by developing and testing during the conference a conceptual framework. Generated was a map or schema to frame understanding of the total adult education enterprise in a country with stress on the cultural context in which it had evolved and manifested, and how it now operates and functions. This contribution provided a structure for comparisons.

The International Expert Meeting on Comparative Adult Education held in Denmark during 1972 made further advances by defining comparative adult education as a field of academic study and reviewing methods for research in this realm (Agenda for Comparative Studies 1972). Periodic meetings continued in Oxford, England in 1987 and Frascati, Italy in 1988 where findings were shared on research studies which had been undertaken between two or more countries. These earlier conferences were small in number. During 1987, spearheaded by Alex Charters, the group loosely organized to form the Committee for Study and Research in Comparative Adult Education (CSRCAE), a group limited to about 14 individuals in order to function effectively.

In 1988, however, it broadened its membership to any interested educator of adults engaged in the study and research of comparative adult education. This group organized a 1991 gathering which was held for the first time in a developing country – Nigeria. The University of Ibadan (under the leadership of J.T. Okadara, head of the Adult Education Department) was host. An important sub-theme of this conference (see Charters, Charters 1991) was the importance of maintaining contact with comparativists in other areas of education and implications for comparative adult education of recent research in other disciplines. Consequently, CSRCAE organized and presented a small enclave of sessions at the 8th International Congress on of the World Council of Comparative Education Societies in Prague during 1992. During that year membership increased, attracting individuals with an interest in comparative research and was functioning more as a Society than a Committee. So, through a vote of its membership, the name was changed to the Society for Comparative Adult Education and later in 1993 to the International Society for Comparative Adult Education. The Society offered its first assembly in Bamberg, Germany in 1995 and a second in Radovlijca, Slovenia in 1998.

The essence of this chapter has its roots in a session delivered at the Nigerian Conference (Boucouvalas 1991) on the importance of the researcher in the research process. A plea was issued to better understand and develop the transcultural aspects of selfhood which enable one to not only perceive but identify with the greater whole of which cultures are part. This perspective is vitally important in researching similarities and dissimilarities across countries, cultures, political systems, value systems, and ideologies. The paper was followed up at the 1992 World Congress with a session on the self as an important instrument of attunement in comparative adult education and as integral to developing more competent comparative researchers (Boucouvalas 1992). The material for this chapter experienced a fuller gestation, however, at the Bamberg conference (Boucouvalas 1995) and was fleshed out further at the conference in Slovenia (Boucouvalas 1998).

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Moving Toward the Future

Perusing through the papers and proceedings of all Comparative Adult Education Conferences since Exeter in 1966, as well as the materials on the World Congresses on Comparative Education, and other sources, one will witness increasing attention over the years to conceptual and methodological issues.

While methodological tools and indicators are still in need of further refinement and are necessary to sound research, alone they are insufficient. The „self" of the researcher is an equally important aspect of development and refinement. To borrow from the Bamberg symposium, „Comparare Humanum Est?": liberally translated, it approximates the question of what it means to compare in the human realm.

My basic position is that research is more than a set of techniques to generate valid and reliable data. While important to the rigorous systematic work for which we all strive, one can use the most rigorous techniques and methods and still remain a technician rather than a scholarly inquirer. Why? I would like to propose that sound method is not restricted only to strategies one employs which are *external* to one's self. Part of the methodological rigor involved in comparative analysis is a commitment of the researcher to self-knowledge and self-awareness. So, an examination of the strategies and approaches we use in our research includes an examination of our „ontos" (to use the Greek word for being-in-the-world), that is, a deeper understanding of the „self" engaged in the comparison. This is a huge agenda for future dialogue, particularly since both cultural and transcultural dimensions to selfhood are important: This chapter is one small step which will focus only on epistemological matters: one's thinking when comparing, rather than one's broad ontology. The research on adult cognition provides a frame since it suggests similarities in the structures of human cognition regardless of culture, and thus enables us to start with a common ground. The structures which frame our thinking are infrequently discussed, if at all, in our methodological dialogues, but so very germane and fundamental to the sophistication of the research and the depth of treatment.

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Beginning the Dialogue: Adult Cognition as a Conceptual Framework

The body of knowledge offered by the arena of adult cognition affords a framework to help us begin such a dialogue. Streamlining the literature from adult cognitive development for purposes of discussion, we can talk about three modes of thinking, developmental in progression, as: discrete, relativistic, and dialectical. **1.** *Discrete thinking* is categorical in nature and offers thinking in either/or terms. Perceived reality is often absolute. **2.** *Relativistic thinking* takes into account the contextual nature of the observations and claims and deeply considers the context as part of the analysis. **3.** *Dialectical thinking* apprehends the greater whole of which different, sometimes seemingly antithetical, pieces are part and promotes understanding of complementarity.

This framework, of course, is simplified for purposes of initial dialogue. Future work could augment this framework and deepen the dialogue, for example, with Kegan's (1994) work on the orders of consciousness which provide a world view from which one thinks, or from my own research in consciousness studies.

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Importance and Relevance of the Dialogue

A discussion on the importance of understanding our mode of thinking is meaningful for us both as consumers of research, as well as researchers ourselves. As consumers of research we are at least somewhat familiar with the practice of trying to uncover the assumptions underlying a researcher's or any author's approach when reading their findings, results, or claims. Often, these assumptions are tacit and may be hidden even to the authors themselves, but with concerted effort we can come to understand the underpinning of a position.

Identifying assumptions even in one's own life benefits from the process of critical reflectivity and often results in „transformative learning“, as currently heralded in the adult learning literature. I have proposed elsewhere, however, (Boucouvalas 1997) that this is only the beginning to where transformation theory in adult learning could go and grow. A transformation of consciousness itself is the larger whole of which our efforts are part. Although thinking is only part of what consciousness is about, I would like to propose that understanding the *structures* of one's thinking is as important as uncovering tacit assumptions. Uncovering assumptions deals with the *contents* of consciousness. The framework of adult cognition helps us understand the *structures* of consciousness which generate and hold the content, and restructuring is what transformation is all about.

Analyzing the thinking inherent in another's research and writing necessitates that we first focus on ourselves. Recognizing not only how we frame research questions, but also the frame of mind and mental framework from which we approach inquiry is an important start. Awareness of our assumptions was a beginning. Attention to thinking could help provide a deeper analysis for our research. Although outside the scope of the present chapter, perhaps one future challenge, then, may be to generate guidelines which might help to determine the appropriateness of the thinking to the particular comparative research quest (for example, systematic observation could mean different things within the framework of the different modes or levels of thinking).

Let us begin, however, by reviewing discrete, relativistic, and dialectical thinking along with the research basis of the knowledge claims. It should become clearer, then, how a research problem in comparative adult education might be framed and approached differently depending upon one's thinking. These „levels" of thinking appear to transcend culture and relate more to the structures of human cognition, although more research is certainly needed to corroborate that claim.

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Thinking: Absolutist to Relativistic to Dialectical – Promise, Potential, and Pitfalls

The basic level of thinking entails what is called absolutist, discrete, or either/or thinking. The world, or one's perspective on whatever is the issue at hand, is framed in right/wrong, either/or terms. Reality or information is categorized into discrete boxes. This kind of thinking may be useful for understanding some things in the world, but for our purposes in comparative adult education research it lacks an understanding of (or at least a consideration of) the embeddedness or contextuality of the phenomenon under study. It becomes important to ask ourselves the question: Am I thinking in either/or terms without regard to the context and, if so, is it appropriate to the inquiry question I am embracing? It is equally important to remember that some adults because of their various internal and external circumstances in life never move beyond this mode of thinking. Another *challenge question* for us, then, is: Are there any instances in comparative adult education research where either/or, absolutist thinking would be appropriate?

The next „level" of thinking in adult cognitive development is relativistic or contextual thinking. Relating this to the realm of comparative adult education research, one recognizes that the context in which adult education occurs is an integral part of the comparison. The way one compares within this mode of thinking – and the results – are very different, than with the more absolutist mode. One would want to ask oneself the question: Am I taking into consideration the entire context within which this observed activity or phenomenon is occurring or has occurred? Political, cultural, social, historical, value, etc. contexts are only a few. This mode of thinking, while an advance over either/or thinking for much research, presents several potential pitfalls. The most obvious pitfall is to become mired in a relativistic trap where there are no „truths" and anything goes. I would suggest, however, that such a stance may not be a fully matured relativism, but a transitionary space of thinking in absolute terms where relativism is always right. Let us return to the previously raised challenge question then: Are there instances in which absolutist thinking would be appropriate in comparative adult education research? This question calls upon us individually as well as collectively to give serious thought to what we consider „truths". In addition, another potential pitfall presents as follows: Although we might apprehend the contextuality of the observed phenomenon, we might knowingly or unknowingly, overtly or subtly, apprehend the phenomenon from the perceived „rightness" of our own perspective. In conclusion, a final pitfall is the potential in our thinking of emphasizing differences as the groundwork, thus running the risk of polarizing phenomena. It is my position that if we come from a groundwork of viewing the commonalities in the human species that connect us with each other, the differences can be comprehended, compared, analyzed, and celebrated in a non-polarizing manner.

A purportedly final movement in adult cognitive development occurs when one is able to think dialectically. Phenomena previously perceived as different are now seen as complementary parts of a greater whole. It is the movement toward apprehending and comprehending that greater whole which enables one to perceive differences from the groundwork of the similarities inherent in our being members of the human species. So, for example, if we perceive each other and „connect" with each other as human creatures beset with similar structural equipment to navigate life then our differences will take more of a peripheral than central focal point. Where relativistic thinking might still have the potential to yield fragmentation, dialectical thinking moves toward integration of the fragments, an effort it would seem that is sorely needed in our field and our world today. Alternate ways of thinking, contradictions, and ambiguities are accepted along with the recognition that thought processes are historically and culturally bound therefore constantly evolving and dynamic. Unfortunately, dialectical thinking is sometimes misperceived as an inability to take a stand or a position.

In life, as in research, one often uses multiple levels of thinking but it would seem that having a framework to remind us of that and to assist us in questioning how we think when we compare should prove useful. Thinking in either/or terms produces a very different kind of comparison than thinking contextually. Thinking dialectically moves us to thinking in terms of the similarities undergirding the human condition. Understanding the differences from the viewing point of our common identity as a human species leads likewise to a very different kind of research both in our approach as well as in our result. We must keep in mind, however, that adult cognition is a developmental phenomenon. Not all adults attain relativistic let alone dialectical thinking. At minimum, attention to the notion of how we think when we compare will help methodologically to move one to a deeper understanding of the self engaged in the comparison.

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Thinking: Stages and States

I have said that this trajectory is developmental in nature. The research basis of the knowledge claims has been evolving over the past few decades, particularly concentrated in a group of scholars and professionals who converge around the concept of postformal thinking. Beginning in the late 1970s/early 1980s this worldwide group of like-minded researchers began convening symposia (initially at Harvard University, but later rotated to other venues). Most embraced a cognitive developmental frame and were pursuing an understanding of how adults evolved cognitively beyond the Piagetian „level“ of formal operations, hence the term postformal.

One will recall that cognitive development a la Piaget purportedly reaches a pinnacle during and after adolescence with „formal operations“ thought wherein one can think symbolically. Hypothetico-deductive reasoning and binary logic are born and prevail. Post formal thinking moves one into thinking that can sustain competing logical systems and accept the equal validity of more than one logical analysis and that contradictory conclusions can be equally right. While outside the scope of this paper to engage in an extensive discussion of this territory, one is referred to the list of selected references appended for further inquiry.

The simplified three-fold progression of: discrete, relativistic, and dialectical thinking represents in developmental terms the principles of mental organization by which one's life is structured and which gives rise to a world view which enables one to think easily in terms of contextuality because one has become aware of the degree to which one's thinking is shaped and conditioned by one's external and internal environment. Thinking relativistically and particularly dialectically, so to speak, is a demand of postmodern life, according to authors such as Kegan (1994) who bemoans his observations that for a sizeable portion of the population we may be „in over our heads" without the developed mental structure to handle the demands of postmodern life. For example, the diversity movement permeating many parts of the globe demands that we recognize and celebrate a multiplicity of perspectives, values, ways of being (relativistic thought) and moreover that we build organizations and societies that accommodate a larger vision where all may fit and harmonize somehow (dialectical thought).

While the development progression (of „stages" of adult cognitive movement) is corroborated for the most part, we as a human species can still catch glimpses of a „higher order" thinking, even if our structures have not developed to that point. Continual exposure to such glimpses, to role models, and to dialogue acts as a catalyst in encouraging the development of one's thinking (an experience, of course, which needs to be supported by everyday living, life, environment, and relationships). As adult educators, of course, we may next want to ask the question: Can such thinking be taught or learned? Volumes have now been written on critical thinking, creative thinking, and even intuition. We are talking herein, however, not of the content of one's thinking but of the very structure itself. Sinnott (1998), particularly, has emphasized the role that educators of adults could play in incrementally „teaching" post formal thinking and eventually catalyzing transformation in the structures of cognition. As comparativists in the field of adult education, doesn't it make sense for us to do our part in investigating, illuminating, and dialoguing about the manner and mode of our thinking when engaged in comparison? After all, awareness is the first step.

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Note: See also the works of Pat Arlin, Susanne Cook-Greuter, Deidre Kramer, Gisela Labouvie-Vief, Mel Miller, K. Riegel, and others.

THE END OF IDEOLOGY AND HISTORY DEBATE: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE PHILOSOPHY OF COMPARATIVE ADULT EDUCATION

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①

Introduction

There has been a global debate in the academic word during the past decade on Fukuyama's (1989, 1992) thesis that capitalism and liberal democracy have now triumphed beyond any potential challenge after the fall of communism. Comparative adult education (CAE) scholars have not discussed its vital implications for the philosophical bases of their field. I have attempted to fill this lacuna. I contend that Fukuyama's foreclosure of the ideological debate and his declaration of the arrival of the end of history and the last man smack of politics and gross ignorance of history of other times and climes. He compares men and historical movements from the myopic perspective of capitalism, which he declares as the ultimate winner. I also discuss the need for a more comprehensive value system that can provide metatheoretical bases for all basic and applied social sciences including CAE.

Destutt de Tracy invented the term ideology as a hermeneutic device for analyzing general ideas into sensations. In the field of philosophy, it is treated as a substitute for metaphysics. Napoleon utilized it as a derogatory term to encompass as all philosophies whose appeal was popular. Economists use it to denounce all notions that do not result in added value. Sadly, in the Western popular media, the term ideology has been used very loosely to discredit any dissent from dominant opinion. More seriously, however, it has now come to mean any ideas or philosophical program (Runes 1955). Here, let me distinguish between the two phrases of this preceding general meaning. I mean by

„ideas" a set of governing principles of life of a people or an organization. The concept of programming is telic in nature. It assumes people's chosen values worthy of their commitment as beliefs. So long as that group of people can convincingly defend its position, we cannot dismiss them as being ideological in any negative sense.

In the telic sense, ideology is the stuff of core values, which form the very foundation of a culture and its major institutions. This is especially so in the vertical inter-generational and the horizontal international relations. The education and training system of a mono-cultural nation seeks to ensure a smooth transition of its core values to its next generation and it determines a pattern of its relations with other countries. It is vital here to distinguish between core and peripheral values of a culture, the very unit of analysis in CAE.

Charters and Siddiqui (1989) classify all human affairs into three layers: the cognitive level of core values (beliefs); the affective level of feelings, emotions, biases and policies; and behavioral (attitudes); and the actional level of personal and organizational operations (behaviors). An inevitable link among the three levels empowers the core values to determine one's attitudes and actions. The contents, methods, materials, and the organizational climate of education and training structures reflect values. In capitalistic systems, these are competition, profit-motive, individual freedom to choose the type of business governed by constraints of legality not collective morality, short-term value-added concerns, and so on. Other systems will also be bound by their ideological considerations. The personal commitment of people to their respective ideologies is proportionate to their convictions about their beliefs in them. Therefore, those who are less committed to their own beliefs might blame others with stronger and more stable value systems for being fundamentalists and overly ideological.

Marx describes the process of generating an ideology as „social production". Semiologists may agree with him that all kinds of symbols are used and abused to impact political outcomes, especially in controlling material powers of production (Grossberg et al. 1998, p. 181). These powers determine the entire economic structure, defended and supported by the legal and political control. In fact, even if Marx did not clearly say so, it is the laws of the land that determine which values, hence the respective groups of people espousing them, are rewarded and which are punished (Hakeem 1994). The media may then play its role in stressing legality over morality; and flimsy peace with strength over the lasting peace with justice. The entire societal structure supported by amoral legal mind-sets keeps working on the social consciousness of people at all levels, so much so that the privileged develop a mere perception of their fairness to others. The weak can only groan and grumble for a while and subconsciously be forced into a state of learnt helplessness. This confusion imperceptibly forces them to accept the status quo and a „false consciousness" as a measure of justice by all.

In course of time, the first of the three M's – myopic materialistic mindset – is reinforced and popularized globally by the powerful with the help of three other M's: media (manipulation), money, military (muscle). At the global level, the military force might be selectively used by one party, justifying national agenda as international law, in the name of negotiations backed by threats and actual use of force, without ever discussing the real issues, or without identifying the guilty and the victim. On the contrary, the tactic of „blaming the victim" becomes an integral part of generating ideology through oversimplification of complex issues for 30-second media sound bites.

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The „End of Ideology" and the „End of History" Debate

Thus it is obvious to see that ideology has both functional and dysfunctional aspects. With so many meanings of „ideology," there are as many motivations behind declarations of „end of history" and „end of ideology". They reflect the dysfunctional ideological bias after the end of the Cold War, the collapse of communism, and the supposed victory of capitalism. They also smack of a warning to any other potential ideologies daring to oppose „triumphal capitalism" that they have no chance to win against the victorious.

The more positive context of „the end of ideology debate" seems to be the sole superpower's promise to base its international relations on global trade. That is, the era of ideological warfare is now over. The superiority or inferiority of nations will depend on their economic savvy. The battles are to be fought on the basis of speed, reach, and reproduction capabilities of technology rather than on the validity or veracity of ideologies. This sounds like good news, but in fact such a mind-set is sure to turn the world into a less principled place.

„The end of ideology" seems quite inopportune, given the waning ebullience based on scientism, scientific positivism, and logico-empiricism in social science research methods (Welch 1993). There have been strong challenges to modernism from critical theorists and post-modernists. Post-modernism has particularly opened up, instead of ending, the debate on the limitations of modernism, and its scope has significantly widened to allow space for other ideologies. Hall (1993) illustrates with historical examples as to how ideas gain more importance in times of greater uncertainty. We are certainly in times of increasing uncertainties. Do we therefore need to reconsider our own ideologies or become more dogmatic about them?

Fukuyama's triumphal announcement of „the end of history" in his original article (1989) published in the right wing National Interest was more a part of the agenda setting for the Gulf War, the following year. Its extended book form (1992) titled „The end of history and the last man," was the „victory" announcement by the forces of materialism in form of capitalism over its more totalitarian form, and hence the birth of the last man: liberal democrat capitalist with a tinge of Thymos. Liberalism and thymos (dignity and individual self-worth) as conceived in the starkly litigious climate of the United States seem contradictory terms.

Fukuyama's mentor, Kojeve (1930's) concurred with Hegel (1789) in predicting the end of History with the Battle at Jena, when and where the French Revolution was completed, with liberty and equality having become institutionalized in the modern „universal and homogeneous state" (Lukes 1992). There was no more road toward human progress to be covered. Like Hegel, Fukuyama believes that the time has come when Cosmic History can be written from the perspective (end of ideology) of capitalism and liberal democracy. So, it is in this sense that he announces the „end of history".

Paradoxically, Fukuyama invokes Nietzsche, too. It is also interesting to note that Nietzsche's ideas appear in the writings of almost all major post-modern and post-structuralist writers. The cultural left has employed Nietzsche's ideas in diverse critiques of modern theory. It is sometimes used to attack orthodox Marxism. Bourne used it in attacking John Dewey's pragmatism, regarding him as a hammer against repressive rationalization. Foucault proclaimed and defended his fundamental Nietzscheanism (Antonio 1995).

According to Antonio, Nietzsche believed that after modernity, there would be an almost permanent, cultural war. „Politics will have merged entirely with a war of spirits; all power structures of the old society will have been exploded. Nietzsche, in Ecce Homo also felt in his own time, like Socrates', a period of cultural disintegration ripe for epochal rupture. He argued" that just such an evaporation of legitimate authority has resulted in absence of any distinction between good or bad; right or wrong is already the case in mass culture, politics, and most other important areas of life ...". These Nietzschean notions support the idea of a more open, serious and prolonged debate on ideologies, rather than of ending the ideology.

Unlike Fukuyama's liberal democracy and individuals making crucial decisions impacting their lives, Nietzsche spoke of the „highest men" living

„beyond" all rulers and social bonds and of the possibility of a single individual justifying a „whole millennium". It is easy to see how such ideas could be perverted by the types of tyrants, like Hitler, who he feared were on the horizon. The world feels quite uneasy about such self-styled „highest men" in the garb of veto powers, G-8, or Trilateral Commission, Bilderberg Group, and the Council for Foreign Relations (Silvis 1998). Adult educators in general, and CAE scholars in particular, should be equally, perhaps more, concerned about such pronouncements of closing the ideological debate.

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Challenges of Globalization to the Adult Education Movement

Despite their greater commitment to education and development in the developing world, the international movement of adult education and CAE knowingly or unknowingly overemphasized the UNDP model of economic growth and technocratic solutions for their problems, thus ignoring the more subtle dimensions of justice, peace, and human dignity. Some saw development more comprehensively. It is sad to see the earlier myopia return with the end of the Cold War. Fiscal pressures are building on educators of adults to conform to corporate agenda for more and more skill training, and not so much to give learners the so-called „ideological stuff".

Along with the entire human society, the world adult education movement is also facing the paradox of serious moral challenges and unprecedented prospects never before available. People behind the modern global media are glorifying the promised opportunities with mentioning their concomitant problems. In a climate of techno-governance, gaps are widening between the haves and have-nots with limited access to technology to participate in. Some claim that technology has given all a chance to express their opinion on issues impacting them. This assertion ignores that the issues are too complex for brief sound bites and time-constrained exchange of views. Sometimes, again due to propaganda, good public policy is not necessarily popular public policy. We also need to know that, historically, capitalism has prospered with feudalism, colonialism and the neocolonialist control of raw materials and sources of food and energy in weaker nations.

The human dilemma since time immemorial has been to effectively evaluate ideas on their own merit, given the vast array of opinions imposed by the powerful institutions and the power of habit cultivated by the media (Wiseman 1989). The adult education of the American variety has suffered from the myopia resulting from the subtle impact of both powerful societal institutions and cultural habits without subjecting them to adequate scholarly analysis. Britton (1996) rightly points out the exception of Lindeman's (1938b) candid human concerns. There are several other Western scholars who have been influenced by ideological movements in the developing world. They include persons such as Hall at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, and Kulich in Vancouver, Canada, as well as Mezirow, Stubblefield, Cassara and many admirers of the Freire's school of thought in the States and elsewhere. Otherwise, like the propaganda machines of the communist regimes, they too have largely served as the tools of the political and commercial powers of the capitalist establishment (Jelenc, Svetina 1993).

Fukuyama tends to ignore that libertarianism is being challenged on moral grounds even in the United States. Serious scholars in all domains of thought are questioning the validity of liberal democracy claims. There are calls for „responsible journalism", (Vivian 1997, pp. 436-460). Some people are now questioning the very fundamental capitalist assumptions, such as: a) people are diligent about learning the natural law; b) everybody's ideas can reach enough people to make a difference; c) the mass media are diverse enough to be a Miltonian marketplace of ideas; and d) the mass media operate free of manipulation (Grossberg et al. 1998).

Backed by the overwhelming sophisticated communication technology, consumerist materialist culture (ideology) is being fast globalized. Concentration of media ownership is creating a variety of consensus journalism based on the corporate public relations news releases, rather than on independent investigative reporting. Competition in the media market is said to be responsible for an outright fabrication of completely baseless stories. The world is wondering about this state of affairs in an atmosphere of free speech, in which stupendous lies are fed to the world on foreign affairs, people, places and things, leading to untold devastation of civilian life and plundering of economic resources. The US and UK are said to have done this to innocent Iraqi people in the name of securing their own national interests in total disregard of those of other nations.

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Ideology in Comparative Education and Comparative Adult Education

Comparative education has a longer and theoretically more established history, while CAE is richer in diversity of views and greater cross-cultural understanding among its scholars. Charters and Siddiqui (1989) identified six reasons for the slow progress in CAE research. These were: a) high cost; b) field's recency; c) concern for program delivery, not theory building; d) lack of rigorous training in the philosophy of social science; e) lack of awareness of other ideologies; and f) a lack of attention paid to global history. No significant change seems to have occurred ever since.

Any growth of movements and disciplines is evolutionary in nature. We do notice any gradual broadening of their ideological horizons: a movement away from Eurocentricism to globalism. Their insistence on the modernist paradigm has considerably loosened. An in-depth of this ideological journey would reveal a paradigm shift from pure modernism through critical theory (neo-Marxism) to post-modernist relativism and constructivism. Paulston (1995) calls this movements respectively „equilibrium" (modernists, Westernists, positivists), „conflict" (Dialectical Materialists, Marxists, socialists), and „problem" (post-modernists of all varieties) approaches, which to him are all ideological in nature. Firstly, it is now impossible to maintain an ideological equilibrium on modernist terms. Secondly, the conflict between modernism and its chief challenger seems to have been resolved against communism. And finally, we are currently passing through a problem approach period.

Paulston's power mapping method allows contending ideologies equal space on the political space. Contrast this scholarly position on paper with the political pretensions to solve all problems without regard to their ideological antecedents and consequences. Hence, the „end of ideology" and „end of history" debates. Epstein (1995) sets apart the orthodox and the „neo" versions of the three ideologies. Neo-positivists are different from orthodox positivists. The former interpret comparative societal data functionally. The latter detect universal laws. Neo-Marxists see ideology in all phenomena. Orthodox Marxists accuse only capitalists of ideological bias. Orthodox relativists look for „verisimilitude" not truth in science. Neo-relativists use critical relativism in search of utility. Raivola (1995) prefers empiricism only for inanimate elements of education. However, none of them offers any meta-theory except myopic materialism.

All research is measurement, and all measurement is comparison. In comparison of concrete palpable objects, we measure real visible indicators of our phenomena. However, to deal with abstract ideas, concepts, and constructs, we compare indirect indicators of the real with agreed upon definition(s) of the ideal. A search for meta-theory with which to evaluate contending ideological and theoretical positions necessitates going beyond traditional paradigms. Here, vertical cleometric and horizontal cross-ideological search will help.

I believe that all comparative education and CAE scholars, including those in the International Society for Comparative Adult Education (ISCAE), would like to come to some consensus on uniform terminology and their definitions. Without such an agreement, no discourse, let alone any serious deliberation, can ever occur. While the goal of researchers engaged in CAE is to identify, analyze and interpret both similarities and dissimilarities, the question of definitions is so crucial that, without consensus, comparisons would be specious. Besides, all regardless of culture need to work toward agreement on collectively pursuing some core universal values such as contributing to mutual understanding and world peace. Should the terms like peace, justice, honesty, and freedom always mean different things to different people, we would not be able to proceed toward these high ideals.

Let us therefore restrict our postmodern relativism to peripheral values without affecting the core values. Continued civil discourse at the international fore, including on the Internet, may ensure the desired flexibility in cultural diversity. However, the ultimate goal of human race ought not to be anything else than collectively working toward consensus on common crucial core values of humanity.

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Calls for New Paradigms

From philosophers like Adler (1985) to litterateur – politicians like Havel, to top economists like Thurow, all are calling for major ideological shifts from capitalism, which has gone too far along the road of materialist consumerism to the neglect of higher calling of the human race. Pointing out ten major philosophical errors that the modern Western thinkers have made, Adler attacks their tenacious faith in positivism and scientism. He asserts that they have erroneously denied the legitimacy of the claim made by philosophy to give us knowledge of reality and provide us with truths more fundamental and important than those we learn from science. Havel (1978) expresses his dislike for abstract, technocratic, and political vision, and makes a strong case for restoration of the metaphysical certainties of an experience of the transcendental and superpersonal moral authority (Bashir 1997). Lester Thurow, against all traditional economists, is trying to convince capitalists to shift from consumption ideology to builder's ideology (Ruona 1998). Having been accused of ruining capitalist Asian economies, the former ultimate capitalist, Soros (1999) himself, has admitted the ruinous effects of his ideology.

Besides, scholars of adult education themselves are complaining against many of the new deleterious global trends and pleading for making major ideological changes in the field to be able to cope with the new challenges more effectively. Many of them feel that adult education has become overvocationalized. The bulk of the participant scholars in „Rethinking Adult Education for Development asked for a new ideology consistent with the demands of the modern times (Jelenc, Svetina 1993). However, only a tendency to mutual recrimination has so far prevailed over the three major analytical frameworks: modernism in all its versions, Marxism in all its forms, and the very schools of thought that fall under the purview of post-modernism. They have opposed one another and remained trapped within the general materialistic paradigm, without being able to come up with a meta-theoretical unifying principle badly needed to guide us in this new cyber village.

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The Tawhidi Perspective

It is to fill this vacuum that I am proposing a unifying framework as far as the common core values of humanity (al-Faruqi 1992) are concerned, leaving ample room for variety in the peripheral areas. The issue of mini-, meso-, and meta-narratives arises mostly in the context of core values. Basic questions concerning the Providence, cosmos, life, humanity, and knowledge of truth are not peripheral values. Is all existence automatic evolution or a Providential decree? Has cosmos originated with someone's purposive planning (theological/teleological), or has it come into existence as an automaton? Is there anything in common in different forms of life? Are there any inherently inferior or superior races or ethnic groups? Or, is all humanity one race? Is there something called one normative Truth (one True answer) about each of these preceding questions? Or, are truths many, or are there different paths to the same Truth?

In view of the inevitability of the BAB linkage between one's beliefs (B), attitudes (A), and behaviors (B) it is relatively easier to address the core questions raised earlier. The first issue concerns the mechanistic versus teleological origin. The former explains the present and the future in terms of the past, while the latter assigns a future purpose to the past and the present. The concept of the Unity of the Providence (Call Him by whatever name: a creative Force beyond human imagination due to one's own limitations), Who has set the cosmic mechanism in motion according to His laws, can resolve the apparent conflict between the two views. For human beings to find meanings of life beyond self and stark individualism, this concept gives them a moral and spiritual orientation and a sense of accountability for their deeds.

The other question is interrelated with the first. The Unity of the Providence is further reinforced by our observation that there is an inter-stellar and inter-planetary balance in everything of the Universe, which literally means „one thing". Therein lies the death of religious fanaticism and narrow nationalism. The latest technological revolution in modern communication has brought about opportunities for e-commerce, telemed, telnet, teleconf, and thus has announced the death of distance (Mazrui 1997). The Tawhidi perspective is expected to usher in an intellectual revolution, declaring the end of many traditional barriers in the way of genuine global unity, and peace with justice.

The other issue is related to the Unity of Life. Human existence is multi-dimensional, but all these aspects are an integral and inter-dependent parts of one's life, which cannot be compartmentalized into sacred and profane or mundane. This view will certainly contribute to the death of the myths of individualism and self-sufficiency. If laws and morals dictate justice for all, regardless of race, gender, creed, caste, socio-economic status, it has to be in all contexts: social, economic, and political. In an ideal healthy society, all its economic, social, political, media and educational institutions ought to send learners the same signals on core values. In reality, however, this has not happened one hundred per cent, nor perhaps ever will. Yet, the human race needs to work toward such a consensus as an ideal by remaining continually engaged in this ideological debate.

In the ever-shrinking cyber-village, it is an anathema to judge people by their race, caste, color, ethnicity, nationality, family of birth, gender, etc., on which they have no control. All education and all social dealings ought to be based on the concept of the Unity of Human Race. The only criterion to determine superiority and inferiority ought to be one's personal character reflected in one's practical righteousness. This view should serve as the death knell to caste, ethnicity and racism.

On most core-value questions, different human societies, through practical experience over millennia, have arrived at more or less the same conclusions. Any lingering differences in perceptions may be resolved through meaningful dialogue and may lead to consensus eventually. That is to one and the same truth about each issue. This inherent Unity of Knowledge may announce the death of reductionism, over-relativism, and false dichotomies, on core moral issues, like Eastern mysticism and Western rationalism; idealism and realism; materialism and spiritualism, etc. We ought to be looking for wisdom on these crucial philosophical and ideological issues globally, beyond the traditional confines. Wilson (1998), a Harvard sociobiologist, too now supports „unity of knowledge" of the Tawhidi perspective.

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Conclusions

CAE scholars, as compared with their counterparts in Education in general, have been more conscious about the power politics impacting the condition of man, especially in developing countries. With the growing grip of multinational corporations over the lives of the underprivileged masses in various parts of the world, the awareness raising curricula are being replaced by narrow skill training consistent with the profit-oriented goals of the global business. It is a matter of serious concern for educators of adults as well as adult learners themselves.

Right when ideological debate ought to be conducted with utmost seriousness, the powerful voices are busy shouting such calls down. In view of the inevitability of linkage between beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors, the importance of ideology cannot be over-emphasized. Various Marxist, capitalist, and postmodern relativistic perspectives have failed to offer a more comprehensive view of life than their common feature, materialism. Yet, post-modernism opened up the space for many mini-narratives.

The salutary trends in CAE are the increased consciousness of the major revolution in the field of communication technology and the new roles of the global media in the international political economy; unprecedentedly rapid and unexpected changes in the political landscape and international relations.

These scholars have also shown a greater willingness to learn from one another, and most of them are now calling for a new set of ideological principles to deal with these major societal dislocations.

I have proposed a Tawhidi perspective that has potential to bring about some order and desired consensus on core universal issues facing humanity in the ensuing chaos in the twenty-first century and beyond. It is based on the unity of the Providence, unity of cosmos, unity of life, unity of human race, and unity of knowledge or truth. These essential principles are presented as a set of talking points among philosophers of education in general, and those in CAE in particular. It is my hope that will help them develop meta-theoretical bases for this discipline.

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INTERNATIONAL COMPARATIVE STUDIES

UNDERSTANDING ANDRAGOGY IN EUROPE AND AMERICA: COMPARING AND CONTRASTING

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The Problem

The aim of our research was to establish the origin and development of andragogy as a discipline, the subject of which is the study of education and learning of adults in all its forms of expression. The research was a challenge and at the same time an intellectual adventure. A challenge due to the fact that the problem escaped deeper study in both Europe and America, so that the search for new data was rewarding whether this new data was explored in the historical or the contemporary context. On the other hand, the research was also an intellectual adventure of sorts that had to be embarked on and problems faced up to, ranging from a lack of sources to difficulties in coming by such sources as have been created by generations of researchers past and present.

Each science, if it holds clear its scientific identity, strives to establish the roots of its origin, the ways in which it had been constituted, the problems and barriers to its integrity, its theoretical framework, the possibilities for its further development, the boundaries of its province, demarcation with other sciences and the need for creative co-operation with all those sciences studying man as a natural and social being.

It was our aim to study the different concepts of andragogy, the different understanding of andragogy appearing on the European and American soil and to search in this way for similarities, for that which is common and characteristic and which makes andragogy a scientific discipline and an integral part of university studies. At the same time, we have endeavoured to counterpoise different concepts of andragogy, to assess their validity, their social and scientific context, their origin and development and their significance in the contemporary development of social sciences.

Europe is the cradle of many sciences (natural and social). The ideas conceived in European civilization were transferred to the American soil, accepted in their original or modified form and meaning, and then returned to their sources enriched or deteriorated. This was also the case with andragogy, its understanding and theoretical scope. Different historical, social and cultural frameworks have had a bearing on the development and emergence of andragogy as a scientific discipline. Andragogy is not a product of the sheer intellectual curiosity of individuals, regardless of how positively one values the contribution of the latter, but stems from social changes, and especially changes in the area of knowledge and its role in the social, cultural and individual emancipation of some nations, and in this context, of classes and segments of population. This process did not occur abruptly. It had its path of development, its history characterized by ups and downs, depending on the development of society, as well by science and culture. For this reason, we have included in the study of the understanding of andragogy the historical dimensions and modern trends and their manifestations in Europe and North America.

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The Framework of Study

When carrying out a comparative study, and this is the case with any other study, it is of singular importance to define the framework of study. We have opted for two areas in many ways specific for our subject of study, the European and the North American. The selected areas offer ample space and possibility to contrast different understanding about andragogy, different schools of thought appearing in time boundaries over one hundred and fifty years. Clearly, human civilization is not situated merely in these two geographically marked areas. There are also experiences of Eastern civilizations when speaking about education and learning of adults, as in the historical so also in the modern times, but we were governed by numerous reasons to narrow the territory of research beginning from the nature of the subject of study and scope to the possibility of gaining access to the sources in order to perform a substantive analysis of the studied phenomena. Even within this framework, it was necessary to narrow the study to a certain number of social units. Thus, we divided the study units in Europe into two groups. The first group was made up of the study units which could tentatively be placed into West Europe: Germany, France, Britain, Holland, Finland; and East Europe: Russia, the Czech Republic and Slovakia, Hungary, Poland and former Yugoslavia. This choice of study units seemed to us appropriate in terms of the specific nature of our study. North America made up one study unit, because the ideas on understanding andragogy, if not identical, then to a greater measure were similar in the USA and Canada. We proceeded on the assumption that there was not among any one study unit a homogenous understanding of andragogy, either in its historical or contemporary context, so that comparisons were unavoidable not only between select units but also within certain units, which rendered research considerably more complex. Apart from that, the understanding of andragogy likens more the similarities between certain geographically more distant units than between geographically closer units. Thus, for example, there is more similarity regarding understanding andragogy in Britain and North America, than between understanding andragogy in Britain and Germany. The reason for this may be found in the historical, philosophical, cultural and linguistic context.

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Methodological Approach to the Research

The basic methodological approach in our research into understanding andragogy is historical and comparative. To this we have added also the analysis of the content of available sources, using induction and deduction. Thus, a number of factors have exerted an influence on our methodological approach. First, there is the fact that the andragogical studies hitherto have in the majority of cases been ahistorical, that contributions of predecessors have been neglected, and that whatever was in existence fifty or a hundred years ago is now being declared a novelty. An evident example of this is the appearance and understanding of andragogy as a concept, term and a scientific discipline. In the course of development of science, including andragogy, we rely on predecessors. The study of education and learning of adults has three important dimensions; the past, the present and the future. It is through the inter-dependence of these three dimensions that we can come by the most reliable answers to different problems in connection with the constitution of andragogy and further laying ground for it. The historical approach not only secures for us facts and data about the ideas and concepts of andragogy, and a fuller understanding of andragogy, but also significantly contributes to andragogy's identity and identification by both researchers and practicians, with andragogy as an area of research and with education and learning of adults as a process and domain of practical activity. Historical research brings to light not only forgotten ideas and concepts, but activates also those unknown ideas and in this way establishes continuity and professional identity, which is an important pre-requisite for the development of scientific thought in any field. In this way, those professionally interested are afforded the knowledge that andragogy has its „roots", its logic and course of development, its binding tissue, which, among other things, makes it a scientific discipline. Historical study plainly shows just how hard and arduous is the process and path to constituting andragogy. Such a study tells us that andragogy cannot be constituted on the basis of the good wishes of individuals, but that enormous research efforts of collective and individual nature are needed to acquire the sum of relevant knowledge which comes for the structure of andragogy. Historical research also shows that it takes sometimes decades for a science to be constituted, to be entered into the system of sciences and to become firmly established there, to re-affirm or deny its hypotheses. Hastiness and impatience in this process yield no positive contribution. On the other hand, historical research of andragogical phenomena shows how findings, concepts and understanding can be surpassed by new facts and data on the basis of which new concepts and new theories are propounded. Without historical insight into the problems of the origin and development of the andragogical thought we could not perceive its essence, its intricate dialectics and the conditional character of its origin and development which depends on numerous factors of social and individual nature. It also shows us the many and elaborate ties between the education and learning of adults and other facts of man's social and individual life. On the other hand, historical research indicates to the points of contact but also the points of demarcation with other sciences studying man as a social and individual being. It helps us to delimit the research space of andragogy and more fully designate its subject and goal. This is not love for historicism and „defunct" knowledge, but the necessity to gain insight into the historical development of andragogy, into the incentives and barriers confronting this development. Historical research makes it possible not only to establish continuity, but also to reach the syntheses aspiring to theoretical values. There have been no great figures in the development of andragogy, as was the case also with the development of other social sciences which relied on the figures of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, so that we could learn from their systems of thought in connection with education and learning of adults. In the course of the modern development of social sciences, the appearance of such figures was virtually impossible. This is why collecting facts, data, and a critical attitude towards certain theories is capable of making up for the systems of thought of the individuals we come across in the previous centuries. The methodology of collecting data, their finding, classification and generalization has changed and become more diverse. The new methodology in particular recognizes historical research, because it sheds light on and contributes to a new way of interpretation of contemporary phenomena of education and learning of adults. Unfortunately, there is a serious deficit in historical research in andragogy, and this could have a negative effect on its scientific establishment.

The second methodological approach we applied in the course of study was the comparative approach. Major efforts have been invested and directed towards comparing the European and American understanding of andragogy. We proceeded from the standpoint that comparison is not only a method of research but also a way of thinking, a research context in which a number of research methods and procedures is applied. The weaknesses of earlier research were reflected in the understanding that comparison was just a method, thereby narrowing the basis of research. Although comparative studies are of a more recent date, comparative andragogy has its „roots", its history which, regrettably, has still not been thoroughly studied and researched. Whether accidentally or not, but the first doctoral theses in the area of education and learning of adults were of a comparative nature and belonged to the realm of thought of comparative andragogy (Burger 1926, Hansome 1931).

Comparative study in andragogy, by comparing different ideas, schools, thoughts, concepts contribute not only to the scientific establishing of andragogy, but also to creating its scientific identity, as well as creating the professional identity of those who work in the areas of education and learning of adults. Comparing that which occurs in other countries with one's own experience and theoretical concepts, provides for the possibility to consolidate one's own knowledge, to, if need be, correct it or totally dispose of it.

Comparative research creates conditions to enrich the knowledge which becomes part of andragogy. Comparative study means not the uncritical transfer of knowledge and experience, but on the contrary, rigorous criticism, taking on only that which has passed the historical test. To apply such a research approach it is necessary to seriously train andragogy researchers in the terms of methodology.

In our research we have applied the procedure which is described in comparative research as juxtaposition. Its essence is in that data, ideas, understanding, classification are singled out and compared and ultimately conclusions are drawn on the similarities and differences within the studied phenomenon. Contemporary authors rightly criticise the approach of remaining at just juxtaposition, and point out to subjectivity in comparative studies (Titmus 1989, Jarvis 1991). It should be noted that in these procedures the intellectual operations of analysis and synthesis and induction and deduction are used. In our studies, the phenomenon of understanding andragogy was followed as a whole, as a phenomenon of civilization, and later separated and divided according to the respective countries of the given region, that is, according to the schools of thought representing the strong points for perceiving the development and understanding of andragogy in its historical and contemporary framework. In the last phase, we determined the similarities and differences in understanding andragogy in Europe and America. It goes without saying that we inevitably touched upon the social-philosophical groundwork of education and learning of adults and within this groundwork we placed also andragogy as a discipline and the andragogical process as practice. We have made it a point to be aware of the inter-dependence of the theoretical and practical points of departure, taking care not to confuse scientific knowledge with practical achievements in which andragogical literature so abounds.

The third methodological approach pertained to the analysis of content of the selected sources. A significant number of sources have appeared over the past few decades devoted to andragogy, its development and constitution into a scientific discipline. These sources belong to different schools of thought, different philosophical currents and ideological orientations. The sources came into being in different linguistic areas: English, French, German, Spanish, Russian and other Slav languages, as well as the languages of other European nations, subsequently translated into one of the world languages. Such an approach required caution in interpretation of the concepts with different meanings in various social environments. It also required linguistic adjustments which would enable valid conclusions. Our research clearly shows that the scientific language in andragogy is underdeveloped, that there is semantic confusion, even in those sources where it was not expected. It is known from the history of other sciences that the development of a scientific language is one of the essential pre-requisites of maturing of a science. We may also come across uncritical borrowing and application of the conceptual apparatus of other sciences which need not always be appropriate in interpretation of andragogical phenomena. It would take much research effort to overcome the semantic confusion which reigns in andragogy. We are aware that this is a process of some length and the ensuing problems would be resolved to the measure to which andragogy is establishing itself as a science.

The aforementioned approaches were supplemented with direct interviews, exchange of views and debates we conducted on different occasions at scientific meetings and conferences, in personal communication in Europe and America. Such contacts have beyond doubt helped us to more fully comprehend not only certain concepts and schools of thought and their orientations developed on the European and American soil, but also to obtain a more complete picture about andragogy as a discipline and a subject taught at university. This type of knowledge represents a supplement to the earlier mentioned methodological instruments applied in studying understanding andragogy in Europe and North America. The described approaches in no way preclude the existence of limitations, including those of methodological nature. We have not had the opportunity to make use of all the methodological instruments available to andragogy and other social sciences, especially those relative to acquiring empirical data in designated environments. It should be left to future researchers to continue such research.

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Findings and Discussion

1. DEVELOPMENT OF PEDAGOGY AND ITS RELATION TO ANDRAGOGY

Prior to setting out different concepts of and understanding andragogy, we were compelled to consider the problems of pedagogy, the paths of its development, understanding of pedagogy as a science and its relations to andragogy. The reason for this is that many authors set forth the thesis that andragogy has sprung from pedagogy, whereas some authors even say that andragogy is nothing other than pedagogy. As there is controversy in Europe and America about what is andragogy, whether andragogy is a pedagogical discipline, even whether pedagogy is a science at all or is education a crossroad at which other sciences „intersect", it was necessary to elaborate the position of pedagogy, the influences of philosophy on the development of pedagogy, the influences of social sciences on the development of pedagogy, the influences of the German school of pedagogical thought on the countries of continental Europe and the turns in the development of pedagogy in the English-speaking countries. We have singled out several schools of pedagogical thought: the German, French, Russian, Anglo-American with variants and sub-variants. Due to limited space, we will concisely sketch their characteristics.

Our historical and comparative research shows that the roots of pedagogy as a theory of the education of children are to be found in the 17th and 18th cen-

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tury. It is understood that the ideas about education are to be found also in the philosophical systems of ancient thinkers, albeit not as a separate theoretical system, but as an integral part of philosophical thought. The process of constitution of pedagogy did not run at equal pace in all countries, but bore the marks of the given philosophy and culture. This, however, by no means meant that there were no common elements in these different appearances and expressions.

The roots of German pedagogy we find in the German classical philosophy, the major proponent of which is I. Kant. The concept about pedagogy as a theoretical and practical science is derived from Kant. The roots of the theory of plasticy are also found in Kant's philosophy and pedagogical thought. From Kant, too, comes the idea about the philosophical foundations of pedagogy. At Kant's time, pedagogy had nevertheless become a discipline taught at university. He, himself, taught pedagogy. J.F. Herbart, who inherited the philosophy department from Kant follows in the steps of his predecessor. Both Kant and Herbart designate pedagogy as a science on the education of children (for a fuller account see Buchner 1904).

In the debates on pedagogy and its scientific foundations in Germany of the 19th century, three schools of thought crystallised: the first school of thought advocated the thesis that pedagogy should remain a philosophical discipline; the second insisted that pedagogy be established as an empirical discipline, while the third school of thought denied any possibility of establishing pedagogy as a science. All three schools of thought have representatives and followers.

A distinct development of pedagogy may be seen in the French cultural milieu. A central influence on the development of pedagogy in France was that of E. Durkheim. He viewed the problem of pedagogy from the standpoint of sociology. In his view, education is nothing other than socialisation of man (Durkheim 1981). According to Durkheim, pedagogy is practical theory, whereas the science of education is part of sociology, whose task it is to study education by applying scientific methods. Apart from pedagogy, he introduced the concept of educational science. Separating educational science and pedagogy as practical theory exerted an influence on the understanding of individuals in some countries, and apparently this influence was strongest in the USA, where sociology recorded rapid development.

The concept of pedagogy as developed by J. Dewey in the USA acknowledged to a greater degree the German experience, especially that of the school of thought which wanted to establish pedagogy as based on empirical research (Dewey 1896). Universities and colleges for education began guaranteeing professional and academic degrees in the area of pedagogy. The critical moments in the development of pedagogy in the USA came in the first and second decades of the 20th century. The development of psychology and sociology picked up abruptly. Pedagogy was criticized for its narrow direction towards the elementary school. It lost the battle as regards the very term (pedagogy) as well. The term „education" as more „scientific" and comprehensive was being adopted (Monroe 1913). In the late 1920s there was a disintegration of the educational science. The disciplines from the group of the so-called fundamental sciences took over the role of pedagogy. Much the same thing happened with the British concept of pedagogy. In Britain, pedagogy was never taken seriously, although there had been attempts to establish it in the 19th century under the influence of Herbart's pedagogical thought (Bein 1990).

The German concept of pedagogy exerted an influence on establishing pedagogy in the Slav countries. This is natural, as the cultural and educational ties were more intense with the German in comparison to the Anglo-American educational experience. A significant number of pedagogical writers and researchers in the late 19th century and in the first decades of the 20th century attended German universities, where pedagogy was established as a theory as well as a subject taught at universities.

In Russia in the first years after the October revolution there were serious endeavors to scientifically establish pedagogy. Pedagogy was dwelled upon and its subject matter expanded. The best terms for its name were explored as well as a rational relation to other sciences and institutional basis for its development as a discipline and subject taught at university was created. Animated debates on expansion of the subject matter of pedagogy failed to coincide with the interests of the ruling party, which placed all social and educational processes within ideological work, and there was no place for science there. As from the mid-1930s, pedagogy assumed a tighter relation with the politics and ideology of the ruling party. What ensued was a period of dogmatization of pedagogy (as well as other social sciences) which lasted for several decades (Kalashnikov 1924, Pistark 1934).

In the period after World War II, several schools of thought or currents were constituted in pedagogy, of which the most important were: Anglo-American, German and Soviet with their variants and sub-variants. Each of these concepts had its own characteristics which emerged in certain cultural-historical frameworks, but they all had a series of common characteristics. These common elements are to be found in the following: the search for a name and identity of pedagogy as a science, its methodological orientation (in which positivism prevailed for the most part), its relation to other sciences, its scientific structure, rate of study, etc. This by no means meant that the mentioned concepts did not have a number of characteristics, but that, due to lack of space, we cannot elaborate on them in this work.

The attempts in some social environments to proclaim pedagogy a general science on education lack scientific foundation. The optimal solution is the one found in France. Its essence is in the concept of educational sciences in which not one of these sciences would be general or fundamental. This concept alone could yied a significant synthesis of knowledge about the problems of education (Mialaret 1985). Pedagogy would be yet another in the family of educational sciences.

The thesis about andragogy having been derived from pedagogy may be denied with very valid data and the facts. Pedagogy developed from philosophy. Its path of constitution was deductive, whereas the main path of constitution of andragogy was inductive and empirical. Pedagogy is the offspring of the German classical philosophy, whereas andragogy is the product of the workers' movement and the workers' educational associations of the 19th and first decades of the 20th century. Historical and comparative research show that pedagogy was and remained a science of educating children. Attempts at having pedagogy expanded into a research subject lack scientifically relevant arguments. The declaratory urging to this effect – a situation we had in the Soviet Union and some other countries of East Europe – lacked the strength of scientific proof. The relation between pedagogy and andragogy cases numerous controversies in various social environments. For this reason, fuller understanding of andragogy requires understanding of the origin and development of pedagogy, understanding of its subject and scope of research.

2. APPEARANCE AND DEVELOPMENT OF ANDRAGOGY

In this contribution, due to limited space, we will very concisely outline the appearance and development of andragogy on European soil. We have already written on this matter (Savićević 1989, 1991). Without belittling the significance of the earlier expounded ideas about the characteristics of education and learning of adults, comparative research shows that the thought about andragogy germinated in the 19th century Germany. The German philosophical thought and the German pedagogical thought were a fertile ground for the emergence of andragogy. This by no means, as already set out, indicates that andragogy originated from pedagogy. Rather, that andragogy derived from the clash with pedagogy and also, with pedagogical psychology. The German concept of andragogy was initiated in the educational institutions of the workers' movement and was an expression of the search for a new approach to education and learning of adults, which differed from that practiced in schools in which children were educated. The whole idea was based on the premises of life experiences, training to cope with the problem life brings, on the struggle of different views and confrontations, and on the training for new roles in society and organized life. Proceeding from these premises, andragogy was taken as a method offering an improved way out of life's problems and situations compared to pedagogy as a method of teaching children. German authors of this period made mistakes not because they backed andragogy, but because they reduced andragogy to a method of learning and education of adults, thus they considerably narrowing its subject and weakening its theoretical foundations. This limited approach to andragogy was to have a negative bearing, especially on some American authors of the second half of the 20th century.

German ideas and influences on andragogy were especially significant in the countries of continental parts of Europe. This influence was felt also in Russia in the late 19th and the first decades of the 20th century. Many authors in Russia were trying resolve the concept of andragogy, searching for the best name for this discipline, and carried out historical, theoretical and comparative research. Many authors believe that andragogy does not come from pedagogy, but from anthropology as a science of the education of man in general (Medinski 1923).

It would appear that German understanding of andragogy had no marked influence on the British thought on education of adults. However, one must not overlook the British contribution to understanding the social dimensions of education of adults and the creating of conditions for its comparative research. In the early 1920s, the theory on education of adults became an academic discipline. This was the item when in these countries debates had been conducted about the possibility of teaching adults, about the influences of experience on learning and the time when the application of general pedagogical principles in the area of education of adults was being pursued. Certain British authors point out the characteristics of education and learning of adults and strongly criticize the „theory of plasticy“ which was rooted in the concepts of British psychologists and pedagogues (Peers 1926).

The German concept of andragogy had a stronger influence on some authors in the USA in the 1920s. They visited Germany and studied experience in education, first of all, of the workers' movement and its educational institutions, or conducted comparative research and in this way established contact with the German concept of andragogy. These American authors produced nothing new, nothing original, but simply transferred the German understanding and experience (Anderson, Lindeman 1927). Andragogy as a term failed to take deeper root in the American thought on education of adults of the 1920s and the 1930s. However, one should not forget that the scientific foundations of andragogy were established in the USA in the period between the two World Wars thanks to theoretical and empirical research. The results of research by the American authors definitively refused the „theory of plasticity“ as regards the possibility of education and learning of adults. A simple conclusion was drawn: no one should excuse himself/herself for not learning because of advanced age (Thorndike 1928). Empirical research of American authors in the period between the two World Wars embraced the questions of aptitude for learning in adult age, the problems of motivation, interest, influence of the environmental factors, the method of teaching etc. A certain volume of knowledge was amassed which enabled the opening of postgraduate studies in this area. The roots of andragogy should not be looked for merely in using the terms, but in the overall fund of knowledge created about education and learning of adults.

Until World War II, two terms entered common use for the name of the discipline which studies education and learning of adults: „andragogy“ and „pedagogy of adults“. There had been attempts to initiate other terms: social pedagogy, adultology, anthropogogy, the theory of out-of-school education, but in the scientific sense they failed to take root. The constitution of a discipline is a lengthy process of collecting relevant facts and data, creating a sum of knowledge through research, re-evaluation or full rejection. This is a continual process of searching and critical re-examination. As regards andragogy, this process is still not completed.

3. DEVELOPMENT OF ANDRAGOGY IN THE SECOND HALF OF THE 20TH CENTURY

In the period following World War II, and especially since the 1960s, favorable conditions were created for the development of andragogy. Institutional conditions were created for research and the theoretical development of andragogy. There was also a marked tendency towards professionalization of education of adults both in Europe and in North America. The search for the name of the discipline continued: andragogy, pedagogy of adults, out of school pedagogy or simply education of adults. Efforts were directed towards proving the existence of a difference in the characteristics in education and learning of adults. Such tendencies may be monitored in all the countries this study embraces.

Since we have written in the aforementioned contribution (Savićević 1991) about the development of andragogy in Europe, we will briefly outline here the course this development took in North America. Debates on andragogy began in the USA in the 1970s. The author informed in 1966 M. Knowles about the European concept of andragogy (see Knowles 1989, p. 79). Until that time Knowles had no knowledge about the term andragogy. The whole idea of andragogy seemed attractive to Knowles. In 1968, Knowles published a treatise „Andragogy, not Pedagogy" in which he set out the concept of andragogy (Knowles 1968). Knowles set out his concept of andragogy most fully in his book „The Modern Practice of Adult Education – Andragogy versus Pedagogy", subtitled „Farewell Pedagogy" (Knowles 1970). No doubt M. Knowles has contributed most to the popularization of andragogy, in the positive and negative sense. Andragogy has entered professional literature in the USA. We meet most followers of andragogy among the young generations of researchers. Debates have been opened on andragogy in professional literature. These debates, taken on the whole, lack sufficient historical, comparative and theoretical grounds. American authors for the most part rely on the sources that appeared in English language.

Knowles's inconsistency in determining andragogy has caused much confusion and misunderstanding. Where did Knowles go wrong? In our view, the first mistake pertains to the definition of andragogy as a „science and art". He followed the traditional school of thought that pedagogy, as defined by J. Dewey, is „science and art". The second mistake is that he defines andragogy as the science and art of „helping adults to learn". This way andragogy is reduced to prescription, that is, to issuing recipes for how a teacher should behave in the process of education and learning of adults. The third mistake is that Knowles declared andragogy a „model" for teaching that can be applied even in preschool institutions. In this way, confusion was increased as regards andragogy. By adopting such stands, Knowles moved away from the original stand on andragogy as „science and art". The fourth mistake was in the fact that he directed andragogy only towards the problems of learning, thus neglecting other dimensions (social and philosophical) without which learning could neither be studied nor understood successfully. The fifth mistake is in his individualistic approach to education and learning of adults by glorifying the „self-directed learner" and the teachers as „facilitators of learning", without linking this to existent circumstances, the level of education, the nature of contents and other factors on which education and learning of adults depended. Knowles's sixth mistake has to do with an insufficient, incomplete study of the historical roots of andragogy, both in American and in European, literature. Such an attitude toward historical data has prompted him to conclude that he is the „first" to use the term andragogy in the American literature.

During the 1980s in the USA, three schools crystallized as regards andragogy. The first was one Knowles and his followers belong to, the second is the one denying both andragogy and pedagogy and urging a general science on education and learning – humanology, which is neither an original nor a new idea, and the third urges a separate scientific discipline to study education and learning of adults without spending too much energy on finding the best term for its name. A substantial number of authors in the USA rightly point out that understanding andragogy is not only a question of semantics, but cuts into the core of the discipline which has as its subject education and learning of adults. This essence includes goals of education and learning of adults, the special and psychological framework, the understanding of the position of a grown person in the process of education. Moreover, it dwells upon the question of determining the educational needs and courses open to meeting them, the choice of contents. This has philosophical and ethical dimensions, all the way to discharging and professional administration of education and learning and the forms and procedures of its evaluation.

The discipline which studies education and learning of adults in the USA has borrowed knowledge from other disciplines. In the right are those authors who demand that „dressing in another's clothes" must stop, and who ask that efforts be invested towards creating one's own sum of knowledge which would make up the foundation of such a discipline (Boyd, Apps 1984). The reasons for such a situation are many. Among them a special place is held by the atheoretical approach to the problems of education and learning of adults, by viewing this area as a domain for research of other disciplines which are older and scientifically better established, by insufficient professional orientation in this area, by pragmatic and practical in research, by squandering the sum of acquired knowledge on other disciplines, insufficient historical and comparative establishment of education and learning of adults etc. This situation can be overcome by investing individual and collective efforts towards scientifically establishing andragogy, by introducing some serious postgraduate and doctoral programs in this area and raising them to such a level that the young generation of researchers would find them attractive. Above all are needed scientific syntheses of historical, comparative and theoretical nature, as well as generating new knowledge to be gained through rigorous research methodology.

4. SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN UNDERSTANDING ANDRAGOGY

In the period after World War II, as shown by comparative research, several schools appeared in Europe and America, in connection with andragogy, schools which could be described as specific. However, it may just as convincingly be proven that none of them is autochthonous, or that it benefits from any elements of the ideas originating in other environments, without any intermingling with other ideals. This is natural, because this course is followed also by other sciences. The debates which were conducted in Europe and America about andragogy brought to light several pivotal issues such as the criteria for constitution of the discipline, the subject and territory of its study, the historical and comparative establishment, its phenomenological basis, methodological rigor etc. No doubt the advance recorded in the methodology of other related sciences has facilitated the constitution of andragogy, but comparative research shows that research often lacks the historical and theoretical foundations, which speaks of the subsequent deficiencies of M.A. and doctoral studies.

The European and American experience shows just how long and arduous is the road to constituting andragogy. Moreover, this is a process of permanent re-examining of the concept, re-defining of its subject and terminology, re-examining of theories as their outgrowing through gaining new knowledge and new data based in valid research. This is the dialectics of development of every science. From comparative research of understanding andragogy in Europe and America it appears that several schools of thought were formed in the period since the1960s pertaining to andragogy as a discipline, the possibility of its constitution, its subject and the position it takes up in the system of sciences. Study shows that in certain countries understanding of andragogy is not coherent, but that several courses which emerged as a result of critical debates conducted on the subject itself could be outlined. After all, this does not necessarily mean it is a negative trait. By contrasting views, by critical re-examination one comes to optimal approaches and conclusions.

Historical and comparative research shows that andragogy enjoys common roots in all the countries encompassed by our study. These roots are European culture, beginning from ancient Greek culture to the present times. The other common characteristic is accepting the philosophy of lifelong education in which education and learning of adults is of primary importance. The third common trait is an increasing professionalization of the education of adults. Andragogy, under different names, has found its place in universities as a scientific discipline as well as a subject taught. The fourth common property is the emergence of professional organizations. The number of young researchers evincing interest in research of andragogical phenomena is on the constant rise. On the rise is also the number of professional publications in different languages. This helps the establishment of andragogy. All these are common elements relevant to the countries included by our study.

To point out these common elements does not mean, viewed comparatively, to understand andragogy uniformly or homogeneously. We have determined that different schools of thought have been formed in connection with andragogy. We do come across differences also within certain countries.

In connection with andragogy we have defined the following concepts: the pedagogical, agogical, prescriptive, andragogical, and the concept of negating andragogy as a science. Due to lack of space we cannot go into describing them. Their essence was briefly outlined in the mentioned work (Savićević 1991). We have defined also the application of different terms regarding the name of this discipline: andragogy, pedagogy of adults, practical pedagogy, theory of education of adults, psycho-pedagogy of adults, socio-pedagogy of adults, humanogogy, matethics, out of school pedagogy or simply education of adults, depending on the development of the philosophical and scientific thought as well as the cultural framework of certain environments. Many terms we cited remained only recorded inprofessional literature and enjoyed no broader application or influence. For the most part, two terms: andragogy and pedagogy of adults were settled for, whereas in Britain and the USA, simply the term „Adult Education" is used. The essence of this discipline is not only in the term, but also in its scientific structure.

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Conclusion

In this work we have contrasted the understanding of andragogy as a concept, notion and scientific discipline. We made use of triangulation, the essence of which is in that we have used different approaches, methods and procedures in collecting data. The result of applying several approaches shows that andragogy has its „roots", its history and that thus far it in the course of its development has trodden the road characteristic of many older sciences. This was not done without problems and difficulties, without the ups and downs, immanent to the development of science. The forming of a school of thought as regards andragogy need not mean anything negative. Andragogy is firmly placed as part of educational sciences, without any subordination or superiority. There is no serious study today devoted to education and learning of adults that does not touch upon the problem of andragogy. It has in the course of its development devised its own system of subdisciplines which, of course, is not complete, but open to new areas of research. It has found its own place, although under different names, as a scientific discipline as well as a subject taught at universities. Its future will depend, among other things, on further professionalization in the area of education and learning of adults and the intensity and quality with which research into the phenomenon of education and learning of adults is conducted.

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STUDY CIRCLE TOPICS IN SLOVENIA AND SWEDEN

Nevenka Bogataj ▪ Slovenia

❶

Introduction

Slovenia is a relatively small country with 2 million inhabitants on 20,000 square km. Its geography is defined by a great variety of landscape – the passages from the Alpine world to the Pannonian Plain, continental hills and the Mediterranean – and its shift to various foreign rulers in the historical development of the country.

1. THE STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Every individual today is facing, above all, many-sided influences on long-term decisions connected with property reform, and also on adjustment to European standards (for example 7.5% unemployment rate, breakthrough of the information technology, market law implementation, democratic social relations etc.). Every adult in Slovenia has therefore to be able and willing to face the changes and accommodate to them. The opportunities available, are used only when the individual sees an opportunity for further development. These opportunities include study circles (further on SC). We see SC as a flexible and multifunctional form which accelerates integration of a single person or a society into global processes keeping at the same time its identity.

2. RESEARCH QUESTION

The aim of the presentation is to carry out a systematic comparison between the study circles in Slovenia and those in Sweden and look for those features which are crucial for further work and interesting for our Swedish colleagues as well. Our primary goal is to gain a critical insight into Slovenian SC topics in comparison with the Swedish ones.

3. METHOD AND THE DATA

A comparison is deriving from the data from the literature in which some limitations were found which call for further literature research. The data on Swedish SC come from English literature (Oliver 1987, Blid 1989), while the Slovenian data come from the first integral presentation of SC in Slovenia (Mijoč, Krajnc, Findeisen 1993), from a Slovene Adult Education Centre (further on SAEC) study (Klemenčič 1995), excerpts from the evaluation questionnaires, processed by the Faculty of Arts graduates (Malečkar, Chvatal 1997) and part of the preliminary results for the study year 1997/98.

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Basic Issues

1. SOME BRIEF CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POPULATIONS IN SWEDEN AND SLOVENIA AND THEIR ADULT EDUCATION

The number of inhabitants in Sweden is more than four times greater than in Slovenia (8.8:1.9 million) (Statistični urad, 5, 1998). In Sweden most people live in the cities (50% of inhabitants), while the population in Slovenia is more distributed (20% of inhabitants live in cities). The official unemployment rate in 1998 is 5.4% in Sweden (Statistics Sweden 1999) and 7.5% in Slovenia (Statistični urad RS, 7, 1998).

Instead of the direct comparison of adult education (further on adult education) in both countries – which is difficult because of different backgrounds of results – some facts are used as an illustration only. The absolute costs for adult education were higher in Sweden than in Slovenia (the data are in % GDP for 1970, 1980 and 1992; 7.9:4.3, 8.5:3.5, 7.7:5.6), the changes in both countries were not directed in the same way and are not of the same value. In Sweden, in 1994, more than half of the population was involved in some form of adult education (Patterns 1997), while in Slovenia in 1992 this number was only 17% (Ivančič 1998).

2. KEY FEATURES OF THE SWEDISH AND SLOVENIAN STUDY CIRCLES

The most important common features of SC in both countries are the orientation of SC, their basic aim, principles and procedures are (Table 1).

SC are a planned, structured, decentralized form of non-formal adult education, accessible on local level and to the greatest possible extent, built into the individual's everyday life (summarized from Blid 1989, Oliver 1987, Klemenčič 1995)

Table 1: Characteristics of study circles in Sweden and in Slovenia

Characteristics	**SWEDEN**	**SLOVENIA**
Implementation	„Bottom-up"	„Top-down"
Tradition	>100 years	5 years
Principles	equality (democracy), liberation of resources, co-operation, freedom to set the objective, planning, active participation, action	
Approaches	Thematic, debate, research course	Thematic, debate, research
Procedures	5-12 participants know each other ■ they are seated so that allcan have eye-contact ■ all together their meetings last at least 20 hours ■ the mentors are not teachers ■ active participation and work together ■ increasing the self-reliance ■ planning.	
		■ printed material as the final result; ■ detailed evaluation of SC
Participants	17% inhabitants in 1995	<1% inhabitants in 1995
Structure	Mostly women ■ Small differences between urban and rural areas	75% women ■ 54% 27-45 years ■ 32% level of education is secondary school (1996/97)
Topics	41% art, music, drama ■ 30% medicine, economics, natural science, ... ■ 13% languages n 16% social science, information (Anonymous 1990)	44% culture, handicraft ■ 20% communication, health care, cooking art n 3% languages 36% other (ad hoc comparison)

In Slovenia the *main goal of every study circle* is individual's learning, knowledge revival, gaining skills and experiences. On the other hand people in SC are satisfying other needs than learning etc.; these are the needs for safety, social adherence, emotional attachment, gaining self-confidence and discovering the unknown (Mijoč, Krajnc, Findeisen 1993).

For the social community the SC are significant in the role of complementary educational offer and stimulation of the individuals for assuming active social roles and their implementation in the democratic way. They should therefore contribute both to social democratization and also as to influencing the local surrounding development, which is a *primary goal of the project „Study Circles"* at the SAEC (Klemenčič 1995).

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3. THE MOTIVES OF STUDY CIRCLE PARTICIPANTS

The motives of study circle participants are another crucial element indispensable for the existence of SC and their further affirmation. The motives for participation in the SC can be detected at least in two ways: **a)** directly (questions to the SC leaders, mentors and participants) and **b)** indirectly from the SC topics.

Within the five years of SC' implementation in Slovenia, the motives for participating in the SC have been varying. In the first year of the project (1993/94) the prevailing motives for work in SC were as follows (Klemenčič 1995): **1.** an aspiration for innovation in the adult education field (expressed by leaders), **2.** a wish for personal development, learning (expressed by mentors), **3.** a desire to acquire new knowledge and implement changes in the local environment (expressed by the SC participants).

The opportunity for action proved to be the most stimulating both for the best- and the less-well educated, elderly people and residents of the localities with fewer than 1000 inhabitants. Therefore we assume, that these particular groups of inhabitants feel excluded from social events and also feel isolated (ibid, p. 164). SC were indeed most welcome in the localities, where there are no opportunities for adult education (ibid, p. 112) and among people who are generally not involved in any form of adult education (ibid, p. 116). That is why it is important for them to assume this social role.

Later on, the leaders' and mentors' personal motives were identified. Leaders, for example, wanted to get the opportunity to realize their ideas, which they could not do before, and saw the opportunity of obtaining financial support. Mentors were interested in their own education, in new forms of socialization, in their town/village development, and in working with other people (Malečkar, Chvatal 1997). The authors indicate a change of interest in the second year of project implementation ($p=1\%$, $N_1=212$, $N_2=485$), but they do not explain exactly what these changed motives are. The priority still goes to the SC topic, gaining new knowledge and its implementation in the local community.

In the year 1996/97, 331 individuals were part of the investigation, one third approximately were attracted to the SC according to the selected topic, 25% because of the opportunity to socialize with others, 23% a desire for knowledge (Černoša 1998). Only 14% came with the intention to make changes in their locality. In the last study year we have not made any inquiries, though we estimate that there have not been any important changes.

The motives of the Swedish SC participants were studied through SC topics, described in the following chapter. The main motive for coming into the study circle is seen from the following definition: „study circles are a meeting-place to break away from isolation and a way to learn something that was in the person's genuine interest" (Larsson et al. 1996).

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Study Circles Topics and Trends in their Selection

We suppose that for Slovenia the prevailing motive of coming into a study circle is a basic „bottom-up" feature – the choice of the topic. So we compared the SC topics according to the first classification (Malečkar, Chvatal 1997), as the classifications do slightly differ in various sources. Černoša (1998) draws attention to the difficulties which arise while setting the classification criteria. It would therefore be wise to dedicate some time to its improvement which would guarantee international comparability. Table 2 shows the percent of study circles classified according to the topics.

Table 2. Percent of study circles classified according to the topics from the year 1993/94 to the year 1997/98 (source for the years 1993/94 and 1994/95 is Malečkar, Chvatal 1997, for the years 1995/96 and 1996/97 Černoša 1998, for the year 1997/98 the preliminary basic data were used).

SC TOPIC	PERCENT OF STUDY CIRCLES					
/ STUDY YEAR/ Number of SC in the year	1993/94 n=34	1994/95 n=84	1995/96 n=125	1996/97 n=116	1997/98 n=131	ALL N=490
1. Manual skills	9	14	13	18	21	16
2. Ethnology	0	16	15	15	15	14
3. Cultural creation work	23	7	14	17	12	14
4. Cooking	17	8	5	3	8	7
5. Personal development, relationships	9	11	8	4	20	11
6. Media	3	2	5*	4*	0	3
7. Ecology	3	4	5	4	2	3
8. Computer skills	0	2	1	1	0	1
9. Astronomy	0	1	1	0	0	0
10. Healthy life	0	5	8	12**	5	7
11. Gardening	6	6	2	3	2	3
12. Education	6	7	5	7***	3	6
13. Economy + law	6	6	5	6	5	5
14. Tourism	6	7	7	7	5	6
15. Sport in recreation	3	0	2	0	1	1
16. Foreign languages	9	4	4	2	1	3

* also Communication (4) (Černoša 1998)

** also Quality of Life (14) (Malečkar, Chvatal 1997)

*** also History (5) (Klemenčič 1995)

The table shows a variety of the SC topics which confirms not only the creativity and craving for knowledge of the participants, but also the project goals. Comparable diversity was found by Larsson (1996) even on the level of the single participant. An increasing activity is obvious. These changes during the last years were not statistically controlled as it is rather difficult to bring together various topic fields. We have focused on the prevailing of the first five activity fields, especially the national topic (preserving the dialects, learning the local history, tradition, cooking etc.) where the participants from the frontier region had been particularly active. Study circles in Prekmurje and in the region of Koper had been particularly careful in preserving the natural and cultural landscape. Their activity is being expressed via artistic products, performances, brochures and expositions, some of them with research documentation. More and more SC have been in the last year dealing with personal development, mutual relations and communication skills. The reasons for this are probably the market needs and regional development.

There were not many socially engaging topics, merely about 10%. One tenth to one fifth of the members tries to actively engage themselves in influencing their local community environment. Mostly there are issues like dealing with the unemployment, discrimination of provincial life in and ecological issues. The majority of the SC participants deal with the topics directed towards awareness of their environment, learning about history, their personality, new skills – learning in its most exact meaning.

In Swedish SC, art, music and drama dominate (41.4%). Medicine, health care, economy, marketing, business, mathematics, communication skills are present in 30% of SC and social sciences and informatics in 15.6% of SC. Last but not least, 13.4% of topics are languages (all Anonymous 1990). Indirect information about the motivation of Swedes to learn in the SC could be extracted from different research results, arising from different research aims. For example, SC topics are divided into activity types: ■ education and ■ leisure time; or into SC concentrated to: ■ individual, personal development or ■ community level (Höghielm, Gougoulakis 1995).

Larsson formed six units: development of interest, learning, friendship development, personal development, democracy development, research group (Larsson et al. 1996).

Up till now no trends in SC topics in Sweden have been found.

1. THE MEANING OF THE STUDY CIRCLE TOPIC

It is difficult, even impossible, to generalize on the importance of SC topics since : ■ the non-elaborate classification and ■ the non-examinable validity of the SC topics for identification of the needs for social change.

Another crucial point of comparison is the lack of developmental knowledge and field experience of the Swedish SC. That is why we offer just a reflection upon the meaning of a SC topic as we see it from the facts presented.

The ideal performance of the SC reflects *the needs of people*: the motivation is so high that they achieve the goals without even being aware of all the initial aims. The mode of work in SC allows, makes it possible and even encourages active realization of the participant's needs so the study of the SC topics can indirectly reveal particular social group functioning principles. Would it be possible to find out the different needs of people living in town and those living in rural areas? Would it be possible to identify the dependency on social groups from the natural circumstances? Slovenian geography offers an ideal example for such comparisons. We can also put it the other way round – for SC development, the topics need to accommodate various goals of the particular groups of participants (like people with special needs, peasants, younger unemployed, employed). The support should be given to the skills and knowledge which are not being specially required from the participants but are nevertheless important for the society (ecology education, communication skills, etc.).

The dual role of the SC is being confirmed – at the individual and at the social level – in SC, which have grown into associations. They are undoubtedly of good quality, therefore we can *conclude the quality of a particular study circle* by its topic continuity. Quality is one of the universal principles guaranteeing a successful implementation of this form of learning.

The domination of the topics which are not socially engaging gives rise to some basic issues for at least two levels of performance (the project level and the national adult education strategy level):

1. Project level

- What could be a logical classification of SC according to the fields of topics? Which criteria would best satisfy our intention to see the social engagement of a particular SC and also of motives of participants?

Example: In the Environmental protection topic (see Table 2, p. 127) *some SC concentrate on an understanding of the system functioning while others try to resolve a concrete environmental issue.*

- Can the goals of particular participants be opposite to the project goals?

Among the project goals is also social engagement which does not figure among the goals of most of the participants (Klemenčič 1995, Malečkar, Chvatal 1997, Černoša 1998).

- How are we to properly evaluate the relative value of the five-times increase of the number of SC in five years? High/ low? – due to: ■ the period of their presence (see Table 2, p. 127), ■ the budget for development of SC (see Basic issues), ■ the number of participants (see Table 2).

2. Adult education national strategy level

- Can we talk of global trigger mechanisms for the SC topics selection?

Example: social non-engagement is according to Oliver (Oliver 1987, p. 73) an outcome of the material well-being, which encourages individualism and kills the cravings for changes.

- Does the meeting for „personal development and social change“ (ibid.) finally remain without any social change?
- What is the position of the low percent of socially engaged SC in both countries compared in relation to Blid´s statement that only participation in

the social environment gives to SC importance, adherence and identity (Blid 1987, p. 27)?

- Is the need for social change a condition for SC expansion? In Sweden this form of adult education shifts from the social alternative to the qualitative spending of free time. What would this statement mean for Slovenia and what is the essential priority of the SC to other forms of spending free time?
- Is the selection of topics typical for Slovenia according to its spatial and historical characteristics?

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Conclusions

In Slovenia we are trying to enrich the educational offer in the field of accessible forms of gaining the basic knowledge. Through SC we would like to contribute to democratization on different levels from the individual to society in the time of political and social changes in the context of European processes. SC are organized as a project of SAEC as an opportunity for free education and the creation of a sense of community and group belongingness. They have no tradition yet, since the project is in the formation and development stage.

We have developed self-study material for SC leaders and mentors training, and we carry out work on a rational data evaluation. Simultaneously, we have been looking for high quality achievement of single SC by following the primary principles.

The diversity and multifunctionality of SC is in our opinion the basis for their strength as a social and educational form. Our primary goal in this article is to take a critical look at Slovenian SC topics in comparison with the Swedish ones since they were used as the implementation source. It could be questionable if the developmental stage in both countries is comparable at all (Bron 1998), but in our opinion the difficulties rise mainly from the question of the principles and their development; this, however, goes beyond the aim of the article. Besides the differences in the length of tradition, percent of SC participants from all the inhabitants (see Table 1, p. 124) and financial input of the state (see Basic issues in the unit 2, pp.122-123), similar findings were identified in both countries. We focused on implementation of local changes which is expressed in both countries merely in one tenth to one fifth of SC. We do not know the reasons for this but it would be interesting to identify them especially from the point of the origin of SC. In Sweden, it was at the turn of the century, when SC arose out of social movements; while in Slovenia, it was almost a hundred years later, when SC were introduced at a crucial social turning point. The reasons for identifying of the clue mechanisms of SC performance in Slovenia are as follows: **1.** We see the results of the first five years of the project as stimulative, although the countries with a larger population and budget could interpret them without the context being seen as less important. However, it is surprising though that this delicate social moment of European economical and political association and the increasing unemployment, in which practically every individual is involved, does not stimulate the larger increase of this form of education. **2.** The small size of the state and variety of natural and social circumstances is important. The advantage of the small size state is a strategic importance of such projects, while the geographical variety allows for different research comparisons. **3.** Comparative analysis of the particular SC performance segments in Sweden and in Slovenia show similar features, so we will therefore concentrate on the relation between the local and the global. **4.** SC topics in Slovenia are the basic „bottom-up“ motive, which is crucial for their further implementation. **5.** Flexibility of a SC is a key note for stability. In Slovenia flexible and multifunctional forms are necessary, not only in the field of education but in other sectors as well. That would accelerate our integration into global processes while at the same time enabling us to preserve our own identity.

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ADULT EDUCATION POLICIES AND CREDIT BANK SYSTEMS FOR ADULT PARTICIPATION IN KOREAN AND US HIGHER EDUCATION

Eun-Soo Choi ■ Korea

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Introduction

In the 21st century, the necessity to restructure society including the workplace will require people to be flexible and able to adjust to change. The knowledge and skills acquired through formal basic education provide a basis for flexibility, but even this needs on-going revision and upgrading through adult and continuing education. For citizens people of the 21st century, lifelong learning is not a luxury, but a necessity (Bélanger, Tuijnman 1997, p. 39). All members of society must be motivated and enabled to access and use lifelong learning as a tool for acquiring new knowledge and skills necessary for active participation in the processes that shape future society. Thus, adult education in every society and country is essential for a prosperous and just future.

In many countries, adult education has traditionally been a form of substitute schooling for many adults who were unable to attend formal school. However, its classical role rapidly changed in response to worldwide dissatisfaction with formal schooling and the rapid rate of technological change in the last two decades. Instead of the existing „front-end education" model, there have been attempts to conceptualize „lifelong education" by UNESCO and „recurrent education" by OECD (Giere 1994, p. 1). As a result, the concept of lifelong education has placed children, youth, and adults in an all-embracing yet diversified and cyclic educational system through educational reform and policy in most countries.

An effective educational policy for adult education is presently the center of national concern, and the development of policies to encourage adults to participate in higher education is a focus in many countries. Although the rationale for this educational policy might be different from country to country, there seems to be consensus on the direction of the policy among those who are preparing for the coming century.

This study explores and compares adult education policies in Korea and the US and ways that Korean and American adults participate in higher education, respectively.

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Adult Education Policies in Korea and the US

Since the 1980s, universities in Korea have been seeking a more active role in serving the community. By accepting adults as potential clientele, they became open to the possibilities of lifelong education enrollment. Moreover, the climate has become more hospitable for university participation in adult and continuing education, because higher education facilities have switched their focus from elite education to mass education.

The adult educational policy in the US can be traced to the early 1980's. In „A Nation at Risk,“ the creation of a „Learning Society“ was emphasized as a necessity for successful educational reform (The National Commission on Excellence in Education 1983, p. 13). At the heart of the Learning Society was the commitment to a set of values and a system of education that afford all members the opportunity to stretch their minds to full capacity, from early childhood through adulthood. The Learning Society was also committed to educational opportunities extending far beyond the traditional institutions of learning, such as homes, workplaces, libraries, art galleries, museums, and science centers; indeed, into every place where the individual can develop and mature.

Korean universities, despite the relative short history of lifelong education, have made remarkable headway toward serving the educational needs of adults with limited opportunities for further education. For all the unusually high degree of enthusiasm for higher education, opportunities for attainment are still restricted, and this restriction spawns fierce competition for entrance to universities.

By the late 1980s, many Korean people believed that universities should offer programs that require a systematic learning of particular disciplines affiliated with the professional competency of their clientele. Single session, recreational and leisure programs were afforded little attention by universities. Adult programs at universities switched their focus from general studies and hobbies to discipline-oriented studies. With the advent of Independent Degree Studies in 1988, many universities incorporated independent study as an integral part of the curricula.

At about the same time in the US, the „Goals 2000: Educate America Act" was suggested by President Bush. It consisted of six goals for educational reform as well as a comprehensive reform plan at the federal level. The Federal Government would financially support state and local governments. They would prepare a general set of plans which would include new methods for evaluating students' achievement such as evaluations based on student's extra curricular achievement, portfolios, computer-aided exams, or other alternative learning. Moreover, adult education was emphasized to provide adults in America with knowledge and skills for enhancing their competency.

Since 1992, the number of adult programs at universities in Korea have increased sharply. In 1991, 27 universities were involved in lifelong education programs, more than double the number in 1988.

In May 1995, the Presidential Commission for Educational Reform (PCER) in Korea proposed diverse policy measures for educational reform in almost all areas of education. This was the most bold and comprehensive educational rebirth ever attempted. The PCER strongly suggested the realization of an „Open-Learning Society" for the entire population instead of the school population. Following the philosophy of this reform proposal, the Korean government began to establish a new general framework of adult and continuing education which built the infrastructure for a lifelong education system.

By October 1996, 113 Korean universities were involved in adult programs consisting of 659 courses. Total enrollment was 108,000 and 19.3% of the participants attended specialization courses. The independent degree program attracted the largest number of students, with its student quota increasing to 10,584 (Ministry of Education 1998, p. 115).

So far, some institutional programs for university participation have been proposed: a credit bank system, expansion programs of universities and schools, part-time enrollment, further education for women and the elderly, and supportive systems for distance learning.

In the mean time, the US President Clinton voiced a ten-point call to action for American educators in the 21st century through his State of the Nation Messages of 1997 and 1998. His challenge was a bold departure from any earlier attempts at reform because it covered a far wider range of subject areas. It called upon not just students and educators, but also parents, business leaders and local and state officials to get involved in improving the quality of education in America. The President's call to action features extensive coverage of a number of different reforms. These include the improvement of the basic skill levels in core subjects in the primary grades, higher standards for teacher preparation, the role of parents in education, the students' right to choose their own schools, the modernization of school facilities, the implementation of standardized testing, the attempt to ensure universal education to the two year graduate level, improvements on skill literacy training for adults, and expanded access to the internet as an educational tool. The points relating to adult education include (Clinton 1997, 1998): **1.** To make the 13th and the 14th years of education – at least two years of college – just as universal in the US by the 21st century as a high school education is today, and to open college doors to all US citizens. For this, America's HOPE Scholarship and two years of a $1,500 tax credit for college tuition are paid for the typical community college. Several programs are proposed: a tax deduction of up to $10,000 a year for all tuition after high school, an expanded IRA (Individual Retirement Account) to allow families tax-free college saving plans, and the largest increase in ten years of Pell Grants for deserving students. **2.** To expand the frontiers of learning across a lifetime. Because people must remain technically literate to function in modern society, adult education is becoming more important than ever. Adult workers must be willing to seek additional schooling that will allow them to become more effective workers, and employers must should support employees to do so. The G. I. Bill for America's Workers will provide a simple skill grant to go directly into an eligible worker's hands.

According to the 1991 statistics of participants in adult education among 17 years old and older in the US (NCES 1996, p. 147), the number of adults who have participated in various adult education programs was 97,397,000 (54% of the entire population), while 69,361,000 (38%) had such an experience in the past three years.

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The Credit Bank Systems in Korea and the US

A representative program for adult participation in higher education in Korea and the US is the Credit Bank System. The Credit Bank Systems in the two countries are similar in concept, but slightly different in operating method.

In both Korea and the US, the Credit Bank System is an institutional device designed to give credit to people who have completed an accredited course of studies at another institution or acquired a certain level of qualification through alternative means. When the total credits earned meet the established criteria for a level of educational attainment, recognition is given in the form of a diploma or degree conferred. The merit of the credit bank system is that it enables people who have undergone alternative training to claim the equivalent qualification as those who go through formal schooling. The system encourages adults with no strong educational background to develop life skills and experience for use as pre-requisite qualifications for entry to formal education institutions.

The Credit Bank System in Korea and the US is the institutional recognition of informal education, which has been long overshadowed by formal school education. It offers the chance to pursue academic interests to segments of the population who have not traditionally been afforded the opportunity for continuing education, such as economically deprived mentally handicapped children. By virtue of its unique role in tearing down barriers between in-school and out-of-school programs, it helps to build flexibility within the system and will become a powerful engine driving toward lifelong education when it is linked to the independent degree program.

As the first step toward the implementation of the Credit Bank System in Korea, time-specific registration was introduced for a trial implementation by 13 universities in 1997. Time-specific registration is targeted at employed workers, housewives and others who cannot devote full time to studies. This scheme allows them to attend classes at their convenience and it forces the expansion of university services for the out-of-school population.

The steps required to obtain a bachelor's degree for a high-school graduate through the Korean Credit Bank System are as follows. First, the adult student declares a major field and registers at an educational institution which is accredited by the Ministry of Education. The accredited institutions include adult and continuing education institutes of a university, private educational centers, and vocational educational centers. Each education center offers some general, major, and other elective courses according to the Standard Curriculum designed by the Ministry of Education. Next, the student takes courses to get as many credits as he or she can. The maximum number of credits in a year is 36 units for a university level and 40 units for a junior college level. Credits will be stored at the data base of the Credit Bank System until the student has enough to graduate. There is no time limit on credits. Therefore, students can continue to earn credit units toward a bachelor's degree for 10 or 20 years.

By November 1998 the number of the accredited institutions implementing the Credit Bank System was 181, and the total enrollment was 26,500. Under the Credit Bank System, it is also possible to earn credits through other channels including part-time enrollment in a university or a junior college, a license acquired from national technology tests, and the successful Independent Study for the Bachelor's Degree (ISBD). Thus, it is possible to earn credit units by obtaining a license, for instance, a technician license would be worth 45 units, an engineer license 39 units, a 1st-grade wordprocessor license 12 units, and a 2nd-grade secretary license 4 units. Furthermore, a passing grade above 60 points for a subject in ISBD would be regarded as 4 units for a general course and 5 units for a major course.

Under the Korean Credit Bank System, seventeen different bachelor degrees – except medicine, pharmacy and teaching credential areas – and thirteen associate degrees are conferred when an adult student earns the required number of units, such as 140 units for a university degree and 80 units for a junior college. Students must also get more than 85 units at an adult and continuing education institute of a university in order to obtain a degree from the university of their choice. However, they can get up to 105 units at the same university, or 60 units at the same junior college. A college graduate has to get only 35 units in a major field if he or she wants to get another degree using the Credit Bank System.

Although the Korean Credit Bank System began with desirable principles, its present operation contains some inherent problems. First, a formal university system cannot effectively support the Credit Bank System because it lacks educational facilities for vocational training, faculty members, and financial resources. Second, it is open to discussion whether credit units obtained at an adult and continuing education institute of a university, private educational centers, or vocational educational centers, are worth units obtained in a formal university education. Third, accredited educational institutions for the Credit Bank System are mainly located at urban areas, which negates the original idea that the Credit Bank System would promote the equal opportunity of education for all, especially those in rural areas.

The US Credit Bank Service is well reflected in the existence of „Open Universities". Open universities in America (about 120) usually do not have their own curriculum. However, they can confer degrees after adult students meet the criteria which the open university requires. One good example of this system is the Regent Credit Bank which is operated by Regents College of the State of New York and is available to people anywhere in the world.

The Regent Credit Bank is an evaluation in transcript service for people who wish to consolidate their academic records, perhaps adding credits for nonacademic career and learning experiences (primarily through equivalency tests). The Regent Credit Bank issues a single and widely accepted transcript on which all credits are listed in a simple, straightforward, and comprehensible form. A Credit Bank transcript also makes it easier for employers or other colleges to recognize the credits that a student has already earned.

The US Credit Bank is similar to a money bank. It accepts a deposit of academic credits as they are earned through local courses, correspondence courses, equivalency exams, or other methods. There are seven basic categories of learning experiences that can qualify to be „deposited" in a Credit Bank account, and of course various elements of these seven can be combined as well

(Bear, Bear 1997, pp. 57-58): **1.** College courses taken either in residence or by correspondence from regionally accredited schools in the United States, or their equivalent in other countries. **2.** Scores earned on a wide range of equivalency tests, either civilian or military. **3.** Military service schools and military occupational specialties that have been evaluated for credit by the American Council on Education. **4.** Non-college learning experiences offered as company courses, seminars, or inhouse training by many large and small corporations and evaluated by the American Council on Education. **5.** Pilot training licenses and certificates issued by the Federal Aviation Administration. **6.** Approved nursing performance examinations. **7.** Special assessments of knowledge gained from experience or independent study.

The above seven categories are extremely flexible and variable. Special assessment is a means of earning credit for things learned in the course of ordinary living or job experience. The Credit Bank assesses this learning by appointing a panel of two or more experts in the field.

The panel may wish to conduct an oral, a written, or, in the case of performers, a performance examination. They may wish to inspect a portfolio of writing, art, or documentation. Following the evaluation, whatever form it may take, the panel makes its recommendations for the amount of credit to be given. This has, in practice, ranged from zero to more than eighty semester units, although the typical range for each separate assessment is probably from fifteen to thirty credits.

Work that is deemed not credit-worthy may still be listed on the transcript as „noncredit work". Further, the Credit Bank only lists those traditional courses from other schools that the depositor wishes included. Thus any previous academic failures, low grades, or other embarrassment maybe omitted from the Credit Bank report. Students enrolled in the Regent College of the State of New York automatically get Credit Bank service.

The Korean Credit Bank System and the US Credit Bank Service are similar. However, their operating method is different. In Korea, as mentioned earlier, the number of units for a bachelor degree is based on the sum of credits from various licenses plus credits from an adult and continuing education institute belonging to a university, private educational centers, or vocational educational centers. In the US system there is a difference between credits from formal university courses and those from an adult and continuing education institute (or extension studies) of a university. For instance, units taken from a formal university refer to „credits", whereas units from an adult and continuing education institute at a university are referred to as CEU (Continuing Education Unit). Therefore, in order to obtain a bachelor's degree at a university it is necessary to take credits at formal university classes.

Thus, the difference between the Korean and the US Credit Bank System for adults in higher education lies in the point that even though lifelong education at a university is centered mainly on an adult and continuing education institute (or extension studies) of a university in the US, the adult and continuing education institute cannot solely open their own classes and give credits. Credits for a bachelor's degree must be earned and accredited only through a formal university credit system according to an equivalent evaluation standard. This is not the case in Korea, because units earned and accredited through an adult and continuing education institute of a university can be worth those obtained through formal university classes.

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Policy Implications for Korean Adult Education

Future education must put a focus on lifelong education and continuous learning. The rate of change in information, knowledge and technology is very rapid today. Therefore, continuous education for improvement is essential.

Workplaces and communities must be part of a „lifelong education-oriented society".

The objective of education reform or policy for adult education should lie in „the establishment of an open education society" or „a lifelong education society" in which anyone can receive the education he or she wants to receive for self-achievement without considering time and place. The individuality and originality of each person must be manifested to the maximum for the self-realization of the nation. When individuality and originality are fully manifested, the intellectual assets of the nation as well as individual happiness and contentment can be maximized.

In order to establish an open education society or a lifelong education society for self-realization, the educational system, the practice and the modern way of thinking in the industrialization period must be changed. This change in the way of thinking must be achieved, keeping pace with internationalization and the information age.

A „Credit Bank System" is a major institutional basis for an open education system enabling adults to participate in higher education. Thus, the main practical projects for a Credit Bank System should be focused on educational policies for adult education in Korea.

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NATIONAL STRATEGIES OF ADULT EDUCATION

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The Research Problem

For a number of activities it is self-evident that gradually they have worked out more or less definite and clear conceptions of their activity. Along with the need to determine the activity in order to facilitate the recognition and identification of itself such a conception and determination are called for by wholly pragmatic reasons, among them particularly by the need for its systemic regulation and for acquisition of an adequate place in the socio-developmental plans for the development and stimulation of the development of the activity. In the optimal instance states decide to elaborate and to adopt special national programmes for the development of particular activities.

Is this the case also in adult education? My answer: the conceptualisation of adult education as well as of andragogy have received comparatively little attention both in systemic development programmes and in the professional field. Even a more fundamental definition of adult education that is reasonably acceptable to most experts is merely twenty years old.

One of the recent corroborations of the statements made above comes from a study commissioned by the OECD and in 1997 by Kjell Rubenson under the title „Adult Education and Training: The Poor Cousin" (Rubenson 1997)[1]. In his analysis the author has focused attention on determining the position and the role of adult education[2] in national educational policies which are treated within the context of life-long learning.

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[1] The study was commissioned by the ministers of the countries members of OECD in order to help them identify priority fields of national educational policies in these countries and to determine characteristics of the operation of their educational systems. The study covered the period from the late „eighties" to the early „nineties", and the author of the study used in his analysis national reports elaborated during the 1990-1996 period. Reports from the following countries have been taken into account: Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia and the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Greece, Ireland, Hungary, Mexico, Holland, Norway, Poland, Sweden, and Switzerland, altogether 15 countries.

Rubenson's analytic findings may briefly be summed up in the following basic points[3]: **a)** In national reports adult education is as a rule not adequately defined and dealt with; **b)** In no report is the main stress laid on adult education, and this field of education is not treated with sufficient or equal attention as received by other fields of education; **c)** National policies in adult education are not defined, there is almost in no country any cohesive policy for adult education; **d)** The life-long nature of learning is completely absent as the leading principle of the entire education in concrete implementation of national policies. To the author this finding appears to be absolutely „shocking".

One of the many recommendations and orientations provided in Rubenson's analysis – and this one is particularly important for what is dealt with in our contribution – is the idea that adult education should be interconnected within a coherent, all-inclusive system. If we would like countries to adopt a cohesive policy towards adult education as a whole, then such a statement naturally sounds perfectly logical.

There are many more reasons, both objective and subjective, which hamper the attempts to gain a full-scale or specific conceptualisation of adult education. Not least significant among these are the discrepancies among adult educators themselves, when possibilities are studied for finding conceiving and dealing with adult education as an integrated system. Referring to stands represented by distinguished adult educators in an international project carried out a few years ago in this country[4] the question of whether adult education is to be understood as a integrated system or not was met with highly different answers on the part of respondents – distinguished experts on adult education.

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[2] To make it sure that the author is speaking about the whole of adult education, he as a rule uses the syntagma „education and training of adults" which naturally implies that he includes in it all kinds and fields of adult education.

[3] The report further includes a series of more detailed and concrete critical findings which are mainly touched on in the three general categories specified and will therefore not be specially quoted in our contribution at this point.

A specific circumstance, which has recently been introduced with increasing vigour, is the treatment of adult education in the context of the life-long nature of learning. The principle of the life-long nature of education has triggered off the need for integration of all educational fields of the system (vertical and horizontal), and this had sped up the idea of adult education as a coherent whole, according to objectives, scope, significance, the need for systemic regulation etc. fully comparable with the education of children and adolescents. It puts forward as a demand that adult education should also be defined as a coherent system and that it be treated on equality terms in the systemic running and shaping of national educational policies[5].

Our comparative presentation of national projects or programmes will embrace that national programmes which have originated in recent time for the development of adult education. This involves developments over the last few years, as a rule two or three years and maximum five years. At the end of the eighties such programmes simply had not yet existed, and at that time Titmus (1989, pp. 381-387) states that in some countries changes have only started to be made from „conglomeration towards and organic whole", and that here the state has performed a positive role. Here he is referring to the principles, purposes, contents, providers' organisations, decision-making and financing in adult education as well as to interaction between adult education and other fields of education.

Taking into account the principles and purposes, the conceptualisation and the elaboration of national systems of adult education would be a priority task

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[4] This is the study „Distinguished Experts on Adult Education", in which Slovene authors Zoran Jelenc, Ana Krajnc, and Metka Svetina with the help of a special Questionnaire were asking distinguished adult educators from all over the world what they thought about andragogy and adult education; we also asked them if they thought adult education was an integrated system or not. We received replies from 84 experts from 31 countries, which is a fairly representative sample of adult educators from various parts of the world.

[5] Although many people do not ascribe particular significance to the fact that in many places the education of children and youth is designated with the expression „regular" and adult education as „irregular" or „extraordinary", I find the change of this kind of terminology symbolic and practically significant and I ascribe to it a value connotation. In the system of life-long learning, if we are to implement it consistently, such a differentiation is not consistent and is not acceptable.

of the state and of its educational and developmental policy. It would be difficult to put them into practice unless they get support from the national system. The significant, particularly stimulating as well as concrete organisational role, is performed here especially by two international organisations – UNESCO and OECD. The slogan „Life-long Learning for All" has been leading both. In both the emphasis is laid on the key role of governments and state policies for the development and promotion of adult education[6].

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Description of the Selected Cases

In the survey of the accessible materials it has been disclosed that our analysis might cover only some states which have worked out specific materials for the development of adult education that can be taken to represent a relatively integrated plan, strategy, or developmental project[7]. Our standards were appropriate more or less only for the projects from Great Britain, the Nordic countries, Sweden, Finland, and the Netherlands. Specific programmes, but not sufficiently complex ones, have been found also in Northern Ireland and in Denmark.

In the further text they will be firstly briefly presented and afterwards compared in accordance with the criteria of our comparative analysis.

Great Britain. Great Britain has two programmes which appear suitable to become included in our analysis. We will take into account The Learning Imperative. National Education and Training Targets and Adult Learners[8].

The programme „The Learning Imperative" was adopted by the Ministry of Education and Training already in the year 1989. It may be characterized as a comprehensive national programme of adult education[9], based on the concept of life-long learning and striving to gain for adult education a significance equal to the significance and position of the education of children and youth. Its fundamental orientation concerned with two fields, these being: a) basic adult education, and b) life-long learning. The argumentation's of the programme is necessary to increase the economic competitiveness of the state. The programme gives a detailed outline of the possibilities and measures for the changes in the organisation and in the conduct of education. A significant factor in the implementation of the strategy of National goals is the state, either with its possibilities of co-ordinating the operation of the programme or also with its concrete – in particular legal, financial and administrative – possibilities and with its legislature. The subjects responsible for the carrying out of the programme of short-term goals are Councils for professional training and employment, employers and providers.

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[6] UNESCO: adopted a strategy for the 1996-2001 period bearing the slogan „Life-long Learning for All" (UNESCO 1995); documents of the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education held in Hamburg in 1997 with the slogan „Adult learning: A Key for the Twenty-First Century" (UNESCO 1997/1). OECD: promotion of the goal of life-long learning for all from the early „nineties onwards, manifested at the ministerial conference held in Paris in 1996 (OECD 1996).

[7] In this respect one must take into consideration also the language as a restricting factor for the use of material for our purposes. Material which was not written in one of the more widely used world languages was naturally not accessible to us.

[8] The second is the programme The Learning Age, which is briefly described in another place.

Nordic countries. The programme entitled Nordic Action Programme for the Invigoration of Adult Education in the Futurewas adopted in the year 1992 for the 1992-1996 period. It is an example of a regional developmental programme for the development of adult education.

Programme targets are oriented in three directions: a) Adult education as a significant field of co-operation among Nordic countries; b) Mastering of circumstances originating through the integration of European countries into the European Union; c) Adult education.

The strategy for the implementation of this programme is based on the following conceptual elements: the life-long nature of education; the accessibility of education to all social classes, and here especially to educationally underprivileged ones (less educated or with no education, people out of job);

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[9] This all-inclusiveness and the integrated nature is reflected in the syntagma „education and training“, in the same sense as already designated in the presentation of K. Rubenson's analysis. Instead of the mentioned syntagma we shall use the concept „adult education“ so as to preclude confusion when comparing different national programmes among themselves; the term „adult education“ does not have in our usage such a meaning as it has in the traditional English usage, i.e. to denote only general non-formal education.

education for work and for leisure time; interaction between the education of youth and adult education; decentralisation of educational policy – the transfer of decision-making and of responsibility onto local levels; institutions of general education should become local centres of knowledge, responsible for the development of the entire community, for linking up with local firms and with educational institutions for adults; co-operation and co-ordination between extreme currently separated systems of general and formal education and professional training; institutional, financial and also economic priority to professional training (among other possibilities training on the job); financial means and stimulation for adult education; the use of new teaching and andragogic methods (distance learning, multimedia learning, the role of the media) and of new ways of motivation for learning; the formation of educational networks and programmes for various levels; internationalisation of adult education problems (at least at the level of the European Union).

Sweden. The slogan of the project adopted in the year 1966 is: Life-long Learning on the Job – Steps on the Way towards the Community of Knowledge. It was designated as the national „campaign". The project is made up of two parallel development plans: the plan for pre-school and school education, and the plan for adult education; the two common elements which interrelate them are quality and equality or rights. The program is a medium-term one (five years), which began in the year 1997.

The basic points is facilitating changes in the Swedish educational system, so that adult education might be given a more adequate place within it. The basic objectives of the programme are narrowed down to life-long learning in the function of raising the level of knowledge, and here again priority is to be given to less trained, or educationally underprivileged, unemployed persons who should acquire a degree of education expected at the level of three-year secondary education. More operatively defined targets are the following: to decrease unemployment; to carry out the five-year campaign for adult education; to raise the educational level of persons aged between 25 and 55, in particular of those with an incomplete basic education, especially the unemployed from this target group and the employed who need a better position on the labour market; to make it possible for adults to enrol in full-time study. A significant role in implementing and carrying out of the programme is assigned to the state by providing essential strategic elements of the plan on the basis of which an adequate policy of education is to be formed. It is imperative to stimulate participation through a system of financing various forms of education which can be enforced by legislature or achieved through free agreements.

The Netherlands. The programme „Life-long Learning" was passed in 1997 as the Dutch national action plan. It had been prepared by the ministerial committee headed by President of the government.

The programme is founded on the assumption that the concept of the life-long nature of learning is based on self-confident „users" of educational services. Therefore its fundamental objective is to form such a national (governmental) policy which will overcome the obstacles in introducing and implementing life-long education – and this will be reached above all through general measures towards stimulating the education of members of target groups (elderly employed people, employed people with out basic vocational training, contractual workers, persons seeking employment). For each of the priority groups mentioned it is specifically spelled out how to overcome the obstacles in the way of life-long learning. The programme is composed of a series of concrete measures that can be brought together under the following groups: a) Development and stimulation of development of awareness of the significance of education; b) Financing; c) Time: rationalisation on the job (inter-relatedness between learning and work); d) Developing the needs for education and satisfying them; e) Special initiatives for marginalized groups of the employed (elderly people, with low formal education, contractual workers); f) Special incentives for the unemployed; g) Reform of education; h) Changed role of the teacher; i) The prevention of marginality is to be started already with the children from marginalised families and environments, in particular from ethnic minorities. The project is carried out on partnership terms, and the realisation of it is entrusted to the government. The implementation of the programme is supported by pertinent legislature.

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Criteria of the Analysis

National development programmes or strategies of adult education are documents which should be founded on the already adapted or at least designed and elaborated conception of adult education. The foundations – that is, the definition of characteristics and possibilities of adult education – must proceed from the scientific insights of andragogy and related disciplines that determine adult education as a field of activity. But naturally a programme worked out in this way has to be confronted with the existing social circumstances and possibilities. The designing of the strategy accordingly demands an optimal coordination between the profession and politics.

In addition to the four programmes chosen our analysis could in a broader selection take into consideration also other programmes, but these do not wholly meet the criteria as used in the selection of cases for the analysis [10].

Cases of the national development programmes of adult education presented in our contribution will now be evaluated by examining on what professional-conceptual as well as on what developmental-political elements they are based.

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[10] In a broader selection we might mention the following programmes: the already mentioned programme from Great Britain, the Green Paper „The Learning Age“, which can be designated as a vision about the period of learning, while the focus is on the life-long nature of learning; the Danish „Programme of Ten Points“, which is the resolution of the Danish parliament on the development of adult education; the Finnish project for the development of adult education during the 1975-1995 period; the Japanese Movement for life-long learning, which is designated as „strategy, practice, and challenge“.

Globally we will be interested in finding out how in these cases the profession and politics are inter-related, and in detail which elements they contain. In order to do that we shall attempt to construct a hypothetical model of elements that a national development programme or a strategy should contain. Such a hypothetical models has been elaborated by ourselves, taking into consideration insights as gained from extensive comparative study. These being: **1.** *Broad social, political and scientific schemes.* The most important social, political and broad scientific starting points, which conditioned a need for the conception and strategy of adult education: general historical and cultural development, social-system and political changes, development and power of the economy, legal-normative bases, general characteristics of development of education. **2.** *Basic objectives of the programme.*Societal, political, professional goals and purposes. **3.** *Adult education scientific-conceptual scheme.* Scientific-conceptual based definitions and schemes of the system and functioning of adult education: historical development and tradition, contemporary comprehension and appearance of adult education in the world and definition of the meaning of the most important notions and factors and separation of their comprehension and understanding, where this is necessary. **4.** *The Needs for Adult Education.* Needs according to most rough classification of fields and sorts of adult education: general population – employed persons; general – vocational; formal – nonformal; basic – further; initial – continuing. Presentation of needs in the time perspective: present – past – future, the methodology for estimating, following and planning of needs. **5.** *Structure of system and organisation of adult education in a country.* Scheme of the acting fields and the main operating types of organisations and the current range of programmes. **6.** *The present systemic regulation of adult education.* Basic segments of systemic regulation are: administration, legislation, organisation network, financing, development infrastructure and development of personnel. **7.** *The presence of the national programme.* General starting points, basic elements, priority fields and programmes, quality assurance, connections, reconciliation and financing. **8.** *The Strategy of life-long learning*. National developmental programme of adult education as a part of lifelong learning strategy in a country.

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Comparison of Selected National Development Programmes of Adult Education with Reference to the Hypothetical Model

Let us now look once more at the presented cases of national development programmes of adult education from Great Britain (GB), Sweden (SW), the Netherlands (NE) and Nordic countries (NO) and evaluate them as to how far they satisfy the elements of our hypothetical model.

1. BROAD SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND SCIENTIFIC SCHEMES

Most thorough in this respect is the programme of the Nordic regions (NO), which can be designated as a comprehensive analysis of the circumstances characteristic of the region – Nordic states. The analysis does not remain simply within regional frameworks but treats the region also from a broader horizon and circumstances, that is those of the European Union. The circumstances are shown also in the historical context and in the temporal dimension (present and future). It searches for elements of regional (Nordic) identity. It also calls attention to economic trends (not in detail) and to the migration of work force. In part the demands of these elements are met also by the programme of Great Britain (GB), which proceeds primarily from the appraisals of her position in the world and thereby evaluates in particular the successfulness (world competitiveness) of her economy and the adequacy of its labour resources for such needs. Other broader (historical cultural, social, political, etc.) dimensions are not analysed in the programme. There is no analysis of the educational system as a whole, but some of its unsatisfactory effects (e.g. poor educational structure) are pointed out. The programmes of Sweden (SW) and of the Netherlands (NE) do not deal with broader circumstances, or they merely make references to them. In the case of SW the social problem of unemployment and the ways of tackling it stands in the foreground.

2. BASIC OBJECTIVES OF THE PROGRAMME

The NO programme sets its objectives on a broad scale but here it remains at the global level. But it takes into consideration all the significant dimensions that can be obtained from such a perspective, and these are especially: the scope and quality of education, fields of education (general non-formal and formal/vocational), and contents, methods and organisation of education. Also the objectives of the GB programme are very systematically and precisely defined. There is a prevalence of broader social objectives and these are closely related to the evaluation of the possibilities of education to meet them. NE includes, beside the more narrowly formulated objectives of the programme, also a reform of the entire educational system, both for adults and for youth. Yet it does not treat it in its fullness but only from the angle of the stimulation of learning, and of the possibility of and motivation for learning, or in the function of removing obstacles to learning for the entire population and thereby at the same time for the target groups referred to. The objectives of the SW programme are strictly purposefully and narrowly directed to the target group of the employed/unemployed with low basic education; to the incentives for entering formal education (acquisition of a degree of education); to consolidation of circumstances on the labour market.

3. ADULT EDUCATION SCIENTIFIC-CONCEPTUAL SCHEME

The NO programme deals only in very general terms with the concept and philosophy of adult education, only inasmuch as it is necessary to make clear individual parts of the programme. It fails to see this element as a precondition for working-out other elements of the programme. But it does call attention to the need for such working definitions, especially in view of the social, technologic, motivational and other changes occurring at the present time. GB and SW programmes, as a rule, do not include this element or only to the extent that it is necessary to illustrate the life-long nature of learning and its connection with adult education. SW lays some more emphasis on clarifying the significance of learning on the job for various partners in education and the factors affecting the motivation for learning. It clarifies also the broader and the narrower view on life-long learning. The NE programme does not include this element at all.

4. THE NEEDS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Within the space limited by the document mentioned, the NO programme offers a complete analysis of the needs which are not restricted to the needs of individual target groups or a particular objective but relate to the entire adult education both for work and for leisure time. The needs are presented also in the dimension of time, the present and the future one. Where it does not have data available for the future it requires that a more basic study be made of the needs for the future. Other programmes do not contain a comprehensive analysis of the needs. While the GB programme itself determines as one of its strategic elements the proposal for a planned study of needs at various levels, the NE programme analyses the needs only from the aspect of the target groups treated and also here pays more attention to the stimulation of needs than to their identification and analysis. The SW programme contains no comprehensive analysis of the needs, it has only information narrowed down in accordance with the more narrowly conceived objectives of the programme

5. FUNCTIONING OF THE SYSTEM AND ORGANISATION OF ADULT EDUCATION IN A COUNTRY

The structure, the operation (degree of organisation, innovations) and the inter-relation of the individual parts of the system of adult education (youth – adults; general non-formal – formal – vocational; at school – on the job) receives satisfactory attention in the NO programme; attention is paid also to other factors in adult education (e.g. to motivation). It is apparent that the programme is designed in particular to improve the operation of the system of adult education. The NE programme more or less just calls attention to the need for a reform of the entire educational system, which is at present an impediment for the realisation of new needs and opportunities both in adult education and for youth. Is starting point is the concept of the life-long nature of learning and the changed demands proceeding from it for the entire education. The programme, however, does not deal with it in its total aspects but only from the viewpoint of stimulating learning as well as possibilities and motivations for learning or in the function of removing obstacles to learning for the entire population and thus also for the target groups referred to. The GB programme is based on an analysis of certain shortcomings in adult education and in its current operation, e.g. in regulations of programmes, in structures and functions of organisations, and in individual shortcomings in the operation and system. In SW there is no comprehensive outline of the system of adult education, here again the presentation limits itself on more narrowly set objectives of the programme. But the Swedish case can be designated as specific, as there exists a series of other presentations of the system and its operation which this programme also refers to.

6. THE PRESENT SYSTEMIC REGULATION OF ADULT EDUCATION

Although not in great detail, the NO programme deals with most areas of the systemic regulation of adult education: administration, financing, network and capabilities (different providers), programmes, development of staff. It is, however, less concerned with legislature and with infrastructure. The initiatives for a more suitable systemic regulation represent an important constituent element of the GB programme and, along with the precisely defined objectives, it constitutes a stronger part of the complete programme. But also in this part the programme is selective, it brings out only some systemic measures but does not deal with the system as a whole. In the SW programme this is the most consistently represented element of our hypothetical model in the programme. Attention is focused on the questions of the network and operation of providers as well as of administration, but the greatest weight is laid on the system of financing and on legislature. The connecting element among all them mentioned systemic fields is partnership. Less attention is given to infrastructure and the development of staff. The NE deals with the systemic regulation only from the aspect of the target group referred to. The systemic measures are designed to eliminate systemic hindrances to a more efficient education of marginalized groups of population. But on this more narrow segment they are sufficiently analytic and cover the systemic regulation of the administrative issues, financing, development of network, and also further training of staff. Likewise they envisage possibilities for the improvement of infrastructure.

7. THE PRESENCE OF THE NATIONAL PROGRAMME

The GB programme does not point by title to any particular comprehensive national programme[11]. But the programme itself offers the formation of strategies and also defines its elements; it may accordingly be said that a kind of national programme is an integral part of the national development programme discussed here. Also a kind of accompanying part of the programme – recommendations by NIACE as the professional representative of the programme – can be evaluated as a kind of national programme. The SW programme is in its text designated as „strategy", but operationally as „campaign"; the latter word most adequately designates its true nature. Also the NE programme is realistically designated as a „national action programme". Since several states are subsumed under NO, their programme does not include this element, while the programme as a whole is called an „action programme".

8. THE STRATEGY OF LIFE-LONG LEARNING

The GB programme is doubtlessly based on the principles and strategy of the life-long nature of learning. The total strategy is not worked out in the programme, but later on Great Britain did work out a special document which in detail defines the strategy of life-long learning. (The Learning Age). Also all other programmes discussed are founded on the principles of the life-long nature of learning; this strategy is not more comprehensively presented but predominantly merely applied to problems related to objectives discussed or contain only some fundamental points of departure for the concept of life-long learning.

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Conclusions

We have analysed four cases of national development programmes for adult education, specifically the programmes from Great Britain (GB), Sweden (SW), the Netherlands (NE) and from the Nordic states (NO). On the basis of the

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11 From other sources otherwise various attempts to draw up especially partial programmes of national significance are known to us for Great Britain and these attempts lead us to believe that this is one of the stronger points in the development of adult education in Great Britain.

analysis of the programmes dealt with according to individual elements the following concluding findings may be made:

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With the exception of one – this is the Action programme for the development of adult education in Nordic countries, but even this one relatively meets the demands only in six elements while with the remaining two it is incomplete – the programmes dealt with do not satisfy many requirements from our hypothetical model for the preparation of a national development programmes and strategy for the development of adult education. As such they cannot be regarded as examples of integral conception and strategy for adult education. Understandably we do not blame them for that; they do not pretend to being integral but rather to being „action programme", „campaign", „strategy" etc. We would like only to point out that this would be imperative for an integral development of adult education, particularly in the conception and strategy of the life-long nature of learning. In a sense this is demonstrated by the sole exception – the programme for the invigoration of the development of adult education in Nordic countries – for which programme it can be assumed that it is set out in this way because it did not originate under the pressure of the narrower goals of the development policy of a particular country where the need for satisfying current or acute societal (economic, social, political, HRD, etc,) goals.

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In the programmes we mostly miss above all the following two elements: a broader analysis of social circumstances in which the planned developmental changes should be going on or already are, and an integral and thorough technical conception based on scientific findings for the development of adult education and the definition of the occurrence, role, and significance of these elements (including also the elucidation and delimitation of concepts and their meaning). This is the reason, let us suggest, why in the development programmes we fail clearly to put forward the demand that adult education be systemically defined as a field having equal rights as the entire education, which is of equal value (but not: equal) with education of children and youth. From the shortcoming mentioned results also the incompleteness of programmes in other elements, like: objectives, definition of needs, operation of the system, and systemic regulation. Therefore in most programmes the issues of these elements become oriented towards narrower goals, selected target groups, topical social demands, etc. But in this way only current obstacles are overcome while a stable development in its entirety is not provided for.

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If the programme were integral, then topical social needs – some of which were by way of example given above – could be solved through adopting special (social, functional, oriented, regional, by branches, etc.) national programmes that would appropriately be called „action programme", „re-organizing", „campaign" etc. But as it happens the sole national programmes that could be found (with the already mentioned exception – the Nordic countries) are precisely that – actions, campaigns, re-organisations. By stating this we do not want, of course, to depreciate the positive fact that we have these programmes available at all (not so long ago we did not have even such) and certainly do not want to depreciate their quality. These are programmes elaborated with studious care but, naturally, they cannot substitute integral national development programmes for adult education.

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A significant common characteristic and quality of all the programmes dealt with is in that they are all more or less based on the conception and strategy of the life-long nature of learning. Life-long learning is defined in them as the widest framework and philosophy for their objectives and contentual set-up. This is beyond doubt highly important and it means that such or similar national programmes could in the future be significantly improved upon. This will be determined already by the conception of the life-long learning itself, which will gradually spread over the entire education and will thus from the perspective of initial education exercise pressure on adequate conception and implementation of continuing education (or adult education). But the programmes dealt with are clearly concerned only with the use of the conception of life-long learning but not with its more detailed analysis and strategy. The case of Great Britain shows that this need had already been identified, as they have prepared additionally a special national programme entitled „The Learning Age".

Our analysis has originated as a part of the project Conception and Strategy of Adult Education in Slovenija [12]. For several years this has been an on-going project and now it has reached the final stage before its public presentation. It is based on our hypothetical model and takes into accounts all elements of the model as well as what is stated here in the concluding findings. With this analysis we want to confirm the feasibility of such as project as is represented by the preparation of the integral national programme for the development of adult education. Already parallel with it run preparations for a separate National Programme of Adult Education [13] and the strategy of life-long learning.

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[12] It was mentioned already at the beginning of the present contribution, and in a note we mentioned research projects dealing with this.

[13] This year already it will be treated by competent authorities, and afterwards it will be submitted for adoption to the Slovene Parliament.

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METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES IN CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY OF ADULT'S VALUE SYSTEM: WITH REFERENCE TO A COMPARISON BETWEEN KOREA AND AUSTRALIA

Kwan-Chun Lee ■ Korea

①

Introduction

Little attention has been devoted in comparative studies to adult education and in particular, in methodological issues of comparative adult education, no doubt because it was long considered a marginal area. For this reason, as educational opportunities have taken on a global significance, adult educators have developed comparative studies in this field independently of the mainstream of comparative education (Titmus 1996, p. 682). This situation, as Titmus (1996) argued, has had certain advantages, for example, in terms of promoting a common understanding of concepts and cementing networks, but there are also disadvantages. One important disadvantage is that this separation has led to a neglect of empirical, positivist studies in comparative adult education (Titmus 1996).

This paper does not intend to deal with the methodological issues themselves in comparative adult education. Instead, it attempts to examine the methodological issues in cross-cultural studies of adult learners' value systems, which may give important implications to the research method of comparative adult education.

Rokeach Value Survey (1973, 1979), which is a widely accepted American paper and pencil value test for measuring human value systems, is used in this study for discussing the methodological issues in cross-cultural research, comparison between Korean and Australian adult learners' value systems in this study. The data used were obtained as part of a large study concerning the comparability of values between education, households, and work structures in Korea and Australia (see Lee, 1995 for detailed information).

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Methodological Issues in Cross-Cultural Studies

The problems of achieving *appropriateness* and *equivalence* of measurement at the procedural and conceptual levels are central issues for valid comparison in cross-cultural research. In regard to the appropriateness problem, Armer (1973) argues that a major methodological problem facing comparative sociological research is the appropriateness of conceptualizations and research methods for each specific culture.

The problem of achieving equivalence is not as simple. Warwick and Osherson (1973) discuss four types of equivalence: conceptual equivalence, equivalence of measurement, semantic equivalence, and sampling equivalence. In conceptual equivalence, Sears (1961) argues that the meaning of research materials (stimuli, concepts, etc.) or of behaviour must be equivalent before comparison is possible. Berry (1980) argues that the researcher must search for and discover the local meaning of concepts within the cognitive systems of the people and groups being compared.

A number of attempts have been made to operationalize this requirement. One is through the use of forward and back translations of words, sentences, and test items to demonstrate *translation equivalence* (Brislin 1970; Brislin, Lonner, Thorndike 1973). A second approach to conceptual equivalence is semantic differential analyses (Osgood 1965). For example, the meaning of a concept can be explored by having a respondent to judge its position on a set of bipolar adjective scales.

There are many other discussions of appropriateness and equivalence of measures in the literature (see, for example, Zavalloni 1980; Hui, Triandis 1985; Feather 1986). These discussions have become bound up with the *emics* and *etics* distinction proposed by Berry (1969). Berry (1980) argues that emics apply in only a particular society; etics are culture-free or universal aspects of the world (or if not entirely universal, operate in more than one society). Emic research, thus, is understanding a culture from the inside and etic research is research using universal categories (Triandis 1972). Both emics and etics are essential levels of analysis in cross-cultural psychology: without etics, comparisons lack a frame; without emics, comparisons lack meat (Berry 1980).

In summary, comparability is a prerequisite for valid comparison; comparability may be attained either by achieving appropriateness and equivalence of measurement at the procedural and conceptual levels. It is necessary to keep track of two levels, both the local (single cultural) meaning, function, and structure, and the broader transcultural dimension or framework on which comparisons might be made.

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Appropriateness and Equivalence of Value Questionnaire

METHOD I

1. The Problem of Appropriateness of the Rokeach Value Survey

In recent years, one of the most widely used instruments for measuring personal and social values as well as studying cross-cultural value systems has been the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS 1973, 1979). The RVS provides two lists of values: terminal values (those having to do with end-states of existence) and instrumental values (those having to do with modes of conduct). The terminal values include such values as freedom, equality, self-respect, true friendship, and salvation. The instrumental values include such values as being ambitious, honest, obedient, clean, and responsible. Each consists of 18 values, each one accompanied by a short descriptive phrase or definition in parentheses.

One of the many claimed strengths of the RVS is that it provides comprehensive and representative coverage of the value domain. Rokeach (1973) asserts that values are necessarily few in number and that the final 36 items provide a „reasonably comprehensive" coverage of the most important human values. Gorsuch (1970) and Feather (1975) concur that the values selected in the RVS are reasonably comprehensive and universally applicable and show that one cannot readily reduce the two sets of terminal and instrumental values to a more limited number of dimensions or clusters.

This, however, does not necessarily mean that the Rokeach value items have solved the problem of achieving „appropriateness" for use in cross-cultural research. For example, Braithwaite and Law (1985) directly addressed the issue of comprehensiveness and representativeness of RVS in the Australian setting. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) suggested that health could also be included in the RVS.

Hofstede and Bond (1984) even assert that the RVS was not designed as an instrument for cross-cultural research. Hofstede and Bond (1984) point out that taking an instrument designed and tested within the cultural context of one country, especially of the United States, and to use it in a country which has different cultural characteristics, then comparing the results between the two countries is highly debatable. Therefore, Bond (Chinese Cultural Connection 1987) developed a Chinese Value Survey and carried out a systematic study of Confucian values in 22 countries.

Therefore, when investigators plan to use the value lists in East Asian societies where the Confucian ethic has penetrated, some believe it has limitations that may also be common to most personality tests. For example, Gordon and Kikuch

(1961) argue that a battery of parallel personality tests, no matter how inclusive, will not necessarily provide a comprehensive comparison of important personality characteristics of the populations of the two cultures. A similar point can be made about value lists. For example, when applying the Rokeach value lists to East Asian societies, one soon finds that one of the most important values in those societies, „filial piety", has been left out.

A major question of the appropriateness, therefore, is: whether the terminal and instrumental value of RVS provide a reasonably extensive sample of possible values that are relevant to all cultures, and especially to both Korea and Australia in this study.

2. Determination of Value Lists

Two preliminary studies for testing the major question in terms of comparison between Korea and Australia were conducted in Korea and Australia respectively (see Lee, 1995 for detailed information).

From the first study in Australia, the researcher found that, in general, the RVS was successful in covering the many and varied facets of the Australian value domain. The major exception is the neglect of value relating to *physical well-being, individual rights, thriftiness, importance of education, initiative, co-operation (group endeavors), and conforming to the rules and authority.*

The second study, which is the telephone survey of Australian managers, found a very powerful sense of priority with certain values not measured in the RVS – values such as *flexibility, initiative,* and *co-operation*. Also *sociability, enterprise,* and *loyalty* were stressed. *Harmony with others, health, perseverance,* and *respect for others,* which are not measured in the RVS, are found in the survey. It is interesting to note that the Australian managers, like Korean managers, consider important such values as: initiative, co-operation, loyalty, harmony with others, and health, although the extent to which the values were emphasized by both managers was different.

In Korea, two studies were also conducted to test the appropriateness of the RVS. The first collected its data from a value analysis of school textbooks in Korea to find out the values which Korean society holds. The second uses its data from a value survey of Korean managers to find out the value domain that is relevant to the goals and demands of business companies of Korean society.

The results from the two surveys, which emphasize group-oriented values, may not apply to the whole of Korean society. It should be noted, however, that most of the values found from the two surveys, but not included in the RVS (such as patriotism, filial piety, harmony with others, loyalty, frugality, patience and adaptability) are included in the Chinese Value Survey (CVS) (Chinese Culture Connection 1987). This means that the importance of those values is not necessarily confined to textbooks and managers, but is considered important in the Confucian cultural region. Based on the preliminary studies in both Australia and Korea, the following 12 values are initially selected to incorporate in the Rokeach value lists: individual rights, adaptable, initiative, sociable, filial piety, health, aggressive, co-operative, harmony with others, unity, thriftiness. The researcher, as Rokeach (1973) did in compiling his lists, eliminated the values which simply did not represent end-state of existence. For example, the value „education" was not included in this list because, as Rokeach argued, wisdom is an end-state but education is not.

METHOD II

1. Translation Decentering

Equivalence of meaning is the most important aspect of translation in cross-cultural research. The problem of achieving equivalence of meaning of the values is especially difficult in the „imposed etic" procedure (Berry 1969) of this kind of study, and thus the question of „decentering" is raised in order to check cultural equivalence. „Decentering refers to a translation process in which the source and the target language versions are equally important and open to modification during the translation procedure" (Brislin et al. 1973, pp. 37-38). Back-translation is the basis of decentering.

For a comparison between Korean and Australian adult learners, this study used a combination of translation techniques, including a committee, translation, and pre-test procedures in translating from English to Korean. The modified English version of the Rokeach value questionnaire (value items and the instructions) was translated into Korean through several stages: first, a draft was prepared carefully by two Korean-English bilinguals. These drafts were then compared and examined along with discussions between the author and two bilinguals. The committee found the two translators used identical Korean language except for five value items. The five value items were then translated back into English by two persons unfamiliar with the English version. The back-translation judged that the five value items were equivalent. The committee then discussed again what was the preferred word in each item of the five value items. The committee arrived at a consensus with the researcher and the final form was printed.

The initial form of the questionnaire was pre-tested with twelve Koreans: four Korean students, five Korean high school students in Sydney, and three Korean managers of Sydney branches of Korean companies. This was intended to determine if the value items and instructions are meaningful and clear to the subject population (Korean). They were asked to answer the questionnaire and to give their comments on how clear the instructions and the meaning of the value items were to themselves. The twelve all gave comments for a majority of the items as well as comments on the content of the questionnaire. They commented that the value items were clear.

2. Pilot Study of the Questionnaire

Before finally administering the questionnaire for the study, a pilot study was conducted in Korea and Australia. This was intended to gauge the suitability of the questionnaire and its format, especially the Survey Form. The pilot studies in both Korea and Australia were conducted with five high school teachers and students respectively in one school, and five managers and workers respectively in one business company. They were asked to answer the questionnaire and to give their comments on, in particular, the Survey Form.

All responded to the questionnaire. Many commented on their dissatisfaction about the format, in particular the Manager's and worker's survey form. For example, three managers gave a comment that many managers and workers might not be willing to respond on the question about job satisfaction. Revisions on these questions were made after the pilot study.

3. Reliability of the Instruments

All the scales defining the personal and company value domains had high internal consistency with a Cronbach's Alph in the region of 0.8.

METHOD III: COMPARISON OF VALUES

Based on the final list of values, the questionnaire was then developed for use in comparing the values in Korea and Australia (see Lee 1995 for detailed methods).

The researcher, through the preliminary studies, expanded the list of Rokeach values from 36 to 48 in order to incorporate categories relevant in Korea and Australia but not represented in the original RVS. Also, for methodological reasons (Lee 1995), the researcher changed the method of scoring. Rokeach used ranking among the 18 „terminal“, and again among the 18 „instrumental“ values. When ranking is used, scores become „ipsative“; that is, mutually dependent. If one item on the list is changed, added, or deleted, all scores change.

Therefore, the author, instead of using the ranking procedure, requested the rating of each value separated on a five-point importance scale, a procedure that makes the scores mutually independent. In other words, the rating procedure yields the „absolute“ importance of a value along a five-point scale of importance, each value being considered in isolation.

The values were presented alphabetically with the standard short descriptive phrases. For Korean respondents, the translated form (48 values) was also listed in Korean alphabetic order. Respondents were asked to indicate on a 5-point scale how important each of the values was to them personally, where a score of 5 meant „extremely important“ and a score of 1 meant „not at all important“.

The data were obtained from the questionnaires administered to company managers, workers, parents of high school students, and high school teachers in both Korea and Australia (see Lee 1995 for detailed sampling and data collection).

For the comparison of the average of single values of each national group, the mean ratings are presented for the combined group of males and females in each of the groups.

Although the degree of the rating scale in terminal values is different from each group, the Australian managers, workers, teachers and parents placed relatively higher value on family security and health, comfortable life and world at peace indicating the security domain of value, and relatively lower value on social power, social recognition and salvation. Among the instrumental values, all the samples saw honesty as the most important value for themselves, and obedience and loyalty as relatively less important for themselves.

We can also consider the differences between the groups in regard to the relative importance assigned to particular values. Australian managers rated the following values as significantly more important for themselves when compared with the own ratings of the Korean managers: (at $p < .001$), an exciting life, a sense of accomplishment, a world at peace, a world of beauty, freedom, self-respect, and courageous. The Korean managers rated the following values as significantly more important for themselves when compared with their own ratings of the Australian managers: (at $p < .001$) family security, health, national security, social recognition, aggressiveness, forgiveness, obedience, thriftiness, and unity; (at $p < .01$) self-controlled.

Australian workers rated the following values as significantly more important for themselves when compared with the Korean workers: (at $p < .001$) an exciting life, inner harmony, and pleasure. Korean workers, teachers and parents rated many more values as significantly more important than did the Australian counterparts, such as filial piety, national security, social power, social recognition, thriftiness, and unity (at $p < .001$) which have been considered important in the Confucian cultural region.

Indeed, this supports the arguments that traditional values are not easily or quickly transformed (Feather 1986), and that the traditional Confucian values still have a great influence on the consciousness and behavior of the Korean people, despite the fact that Korean society has been experiencing rapid changes in its social structure, which lead to value conflict and disorganization in the value system.

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Conclusion

We all, I believe, agree that the ultimate purposes of comparative studies in adult education are concerned with the right of every person to advance to the full stature of his capacity as a human being, and with the development of abilities as a means to achieving a good life in society through the diffusion of knowledge and information in adult education. Comparative value research, thus, has an important implication for the aims of comparative adult education since values and the value system play a crucial role in how man – in order to live his life with purpose and meaning – builds up for himself a framework.

This paper has attempted to examine the problems of appropriateness and equivalence, which are the major methodological issues in cross-cultural comparison, using the comparative study of values between Korea and Australia.

Values or the value systems are intimately related to social structures, cultural systems and individuals' personalities. The value test for use in cross-cultural research will not necessarily provide a comprehensive comparison of important values of the different cultures unless it is based on a thorough understanding of the cultures concerned. Rokeach's two lists provide many important values that are common across culture.

However, this study shows that RVS has some limitations when used in cross-cultural research, particularly when applied to East Asian societies like Korea.

Moreover, if the research goal includes mapping a population's belief system, the Rokeach value systems will have to be supplemented on the basis of careful analyses of the range of concerns or values within the population. Otherwise, the data produced for a specific research purpose may not be useful and might be quite misleading. It may be, as Gordon and Kikuchi (1966) have suggested, that the very characteristics which are significant in one culture and not in the other represent more important cross-cultural data than those characteristics that are relatively significant to both.

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ADULT LEARNERS' WEEK AUSTRALIA AND SLOVENIA: A FIRST ATTEMPT AT COMPARISON

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❶

Introduction

Over the past 15 or 20 years the importance of lifelong learning – long promoted by UNESCO – has been increasingly recognised by other international agencies, by governments throughout the world and more recently by business and industrial enterprises. During this same period, there have been numerous attempts to raise the public profile and participation rates in adult education – long regarded as the „poor cousin" or „Cinderella" of the educational world. In this context, an Adult Learners' Week (ALW) was established in the USA by the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education and has run successfully in parts of the USA in the years since. In 1992, the National Institute of Adult and Continuing Education (NIACE) initiated and co-ordinated an ALW in the United Kingdom that has influenced the shape of similar weeks in other nations since. In 1995, the Australian Association of Adult and Community Education (AAACE), following its strong advocacy of ALW, received funding from the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) to initiate and co-ordinate such a week across Australia. In 1996, in response to an initiative from the European Union and following first-hand experience of ALW in the UK, the Slovene Adult Education Centre (SAEC) organised the first Lifelong Learning Week (LLW) in Slovenia.

My purpose in writing this paper is quite simple and limited. It is to make a first attempt, using only published materials, to compare ALW in Australia with LLW in Slovenia. Obviously, it would be absurd to suggest that such a process could result in any sort of sophisticated comparative analysis. However, such a simple straightforward comparison could suggest issues, content and process for a much more ambitious research project. Such a project could involve a number of researchers working in a number of countries collecting and analysing data from each of those countries to produce a truly comparative analysis of this phenomenon. Towards that end, a preliminary draft of a possible survey instrument designed to collect the needed data was developed. Further, this draft survey instrument was critiqued by colleagues following the presentation of this paper at the ISCAE meeting in September, 1998.

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Adult Learners' Week: Australia and Slovenia

The origins of both ALW in Australian and LLW in Slovenia can be directly traced to the UK experience. Early in 1993 Alan Tuckett, Executive Director of NIACE, visited Australia where he held extensive discussions with the AAACE. Later in 1993, the Commonwealth, State and Territory Ministers endorsed a national adult and community education policy. This policy initiative had been largely driven by the AAACE which then approached the Commonwealth Minister to support an Australian ALW. The Minister funded the development by the AAACE of a discussion paper on an Australian ALW. Following extensive consultation, an elaborated proposal was developed. This proposal led to a grant to the AAACE from the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) to co-ordinate and conduct a pilot ALW in 1995. A national steering committee was established. At the state/territory level, steering committees were formed. At each level the idea was that there should be a partnership between government and community providers. Following a favourable evaluation of this first ALW, ANTA agreed to fund the co-ordination of ALW on the same basis through the AAACE for another two years, 1996 and 1997 (Berlin 1995). Following the example of the UK and in response to an initiative from the European Union, concerning the European Year of Lifelong Learning, the Slovene Adult Education Centre (SAEC) organised the first LLW in Slovenia in 1996. The model followed was that of the UK's ALW. The SAEC had been aware of and a keen observer of this project since its inception. Moreover, in May 1996, a SAEC representative had been a guest of NIACE in the UK, participating in the activities of ALW and attending an international seminar to discuss the concept. The study tour and seminar involved participants from the UK, Belgium, Germany, France, Switzerland, Australia, Cyprus, Greece, Hungary, Jamaica, Norway, Palestine, Slovenia and South Africa (Novičke 1997). The main objective of the project was to support initiatives for ALWs in European States as a preparation for a European ALW (Malone, Smith 1996).

In Australia, ALW was managed nationally by the AAACE with the guidance of a National Advisory Committee – half the members of which were drawn from peak organisations in the adult and community education sector and half from governmental bodies. The AAACE, founded in 1960, is a voluntary association concerned with the promotion of adult learning. It has received government funding since the late 1970s to enable it to act as the peak body for the field. Although nationally led, detailed planning and implementation of ALW was highly decentralised. At the state or territory level the senior officer of the governmental unit with responsibility for adult and community education convened in conjunction with local adult and community education bodies a state or territory co-ordinating group. This process resulted in a great deal of variation across the states and territories (Berlin, 1995). LLW was managed nationally in Slovenia by the SAEC. The SAEC was founded by the government of the Republic of Slovenia in 1991 to promote the development of adult education. It is the main non governmental and non-profit institution for adult education in Slovenia. The SAEC's mission is to foster the development of a culture of lifelong adult learning and education in Slovenia (SAEC 1996). As such, the SAEC appears to be the natural body to take responsibility for the implementation of a national LLW.

In December 1994, the Australian National Advisory Committee endorsed an implementation plan for ALW which included the following goals: to celebrate the concept of lifelong learning; to raise the profile of adult learning; to encourage adults to participate in learning; to facilitate networking among providers; and to promote the national training reform agenda. With only minor variations, these goals remained current for the ALWs of 1995, 1996, and 1997. On the surface, at least, the goal of LLW in Slovenia seemed to be more global and inclusive. Less focussed on adult learning specifically, it was described as a celebration for all who believe in any form of learning. The aim was to draw „attention to our programs and to the possibilities of education in our country, based on the slogan: 'Slovenia--a Country of Learning'", (SAEC 1997, p. 3).

In both nations, ALW and LLW have received important official recognition. In Australia, ALW has been launched each year by the national Minister for Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs. In most states and territories the week has been launched by the relevant Minister for Education and Training. There was a message from the Prime Minister for the 1997 ALW. Both the national House of Representatives (1995) and Senate (1997) have adopted resolutions of support. In Slovenia, the Ministry of Education and Sport established the LLW Organising Committee with representatives from important organisations. The President of the Republic and the Minister for Education and Sport attended the opening Ceremony for LLW in 1997.

In Australia, ANTA allocated $240,000 (AUD) each year to the AAACE to provide national co-ordination of ALW. The states and territories each year contributed in total about another $500,000 (AUD). Additionally, some small sponsorships were gained. All in all, about $750,000 (AUD) was spent each year. The financial commitments of the states and territories varied enormously from nothing in the Northern Territory to $150,000 in Victoria. In terms of the national expenditure $240,000 (AUD), 40% went on staff costs; 12% on office expenses; 12% on promotional materials; 27% on promotion/advertising; 6% on merchandise; and 3% on the evaluation. It appears, from published materials, that the SAEC met the costs of LLW from within it own budget. For 1997, the total cost of organising LLW was $67,000 (USD). Of this amount: 47.8% went on SAEC costs; 21.7% was spent on promoting events; 13.0% was expended on the cost of organising national LLW events; and 17.4% went on promotional materials and their distribution.

In both countries, an important consideration in the organisation of ALW and LLW respectively was the maintenance of relations with other countries, especially those countries which had established similar weeks. The first LLW was marked by a very good international participation. There were nine international participants. The first ALW had six such visitors. In both cases Dr Paul Bélanger, Director of the UNESCO Institute of Education in Hamburg was a participant. The experience of both ALW and LLW were important inputs to the Fifth UNESCO Conference on Adult Education in Hamburg in 1997. These examples were used, alongside others, in support of the proposition that the Conference recommend such an annual celebration as an international event for the whole world.

In both countries, the range of promotional materials produced were basically similar. In Slovenia, these included a calendar of events, a poster, bookmarks and stickers. In Australia, these included bookmarks, a campaign broadsheet, sample media releases and a series of briefing sheets. The above materials were distributed free to participating organisations. Additionally, in Australia a range of merchandise for sale was also produced. These included posters, cards, stickers and banners. In both countries, users of these materials agreed that their availability was essential because they provided the context for the local events. The logo designed for the first ALW in Australia (1995) was adopted and adapted by UNESCO as the logo for the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education held in Hamburg in 1997.

Both countries following the lead of the UK, incorporated a series of awards into the celebration of ALW and LLW. In Australia, the awards were organised and presented on a state or territory basis. There were no national awards. There were four categories in each of the years, though the actual titles of the various awards varied slightly from year to year and state to state. The most common categories were: outstanding learner; outstanding tutor; outstanding program; and outstanding provider. The second LLW (1997) was enhanced by the presentation of the Slovene Adult Education Centre's awards to individuals, groups and organisations for outstanding achievements in learning and enriching their own knowledge and for outstanding professional or promotional efforts in teaching and enriching the knowledge of others. Fifteen award winners were selected.

Again in both countries the activities of ALW and LLW, as they are described in published accounts of these events, were basically similar. There was a launch or an opening ceremony. There were award ceremonies. There were conferences, seminars, discussions and debates. There were open days, fairs, displays, presentations and exhibitions. These were receptions, social events, cultural events, book launches and press conferences. The AAACE believed that there were more than 1000 activities and events associated with each of the three Australian ALWs. The SAEC reported that 441 exhibits and 752 events were associated with LLW in 1997.

Over the years, the AAACE tried a number of approaches to the media at all three levels – national, state and local. Not all these approaches, it must be said, have proved to be successful. In general, this work was subcontracted out to various media specialists. A number of television promotional messages had been produced and were screened as part of the television stations' community service obligation. A radio series on adult learning was produced and made available to public and community radio stations. Press features were developed and placed. A newspaper supplement was developed and used. Press releases were developed for local media and locally written stories on learners and providers placed. Unfortunately, no accurate count was kept in the actual use of this material. The SAEC reported in 1996, 168 LLW related news items in the public news media – radio 108, TV 16, and newspapers and magazines 44. In 1997, this figure had grown to 246 items – radio 105, TV 44, newspapers and magazines 97. Moreover, if repeats are included the total number in 1997 increases to 623. However, neither nation would agree that they have had the outstanding co-operation from the media that NIACE has had in the UK.

After each of the LLWs (1996 and 1997), the SAEC sent a detailed questionnaire to all participating organisations and groups. From the responses received and other sources, a detailed report and analysis of LLW for that year has been produced and published. It is these two reports that have provided the bulk of the material on LLW in Slovenia for this paper. Similarly in Australia, as part of the conditions of its ANTA grant, the AAACE has produced and published a detailed report on the operation of each of the three Australian ALWs. Additionally, following the first (1995) and the third (1997) ALWs, substantial independent reports were commissioned by ANTA to provide additional input to the decision as to whether or not the public funding of ALW should be continued. In both cases, the decision was taken to continue such funding.

As can be seen from the above, ALW and LLW seem to have become significant features of adult learning landscapes in their respective countries. And as such, they will continue into the future. In both cases there will be changes; this is normal and to be expected. The basic premise of ALW and LLW – to raise the public profile of adult learning and to celebrate its benefits to the individual and the society – is becoming increasingly supported by the wider community.

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An Initial Attempt at Comparison

The foregoing account of ALW and LLW is, without doubt, overly descriptive and rather simplistic. This is to be expected, as the paper was written from published materials, largely as an exercise to reveal what other information is needed to complete a truly comparative study which would go beyond mere description to a detailed comparative analysis of this phenomenon – ALW or LLW – in a number of nations. However, there are a number of significant things that can be said about ALW and LLW in Australia and Slovenia. These are: ■ Both weeks share a common origin in the United Kingdom experience; ■ There appears to have been much more direct governmental involvement in the management of the Australian ALW; ■ In keeping with their respective names, the goals of LLW in Slovenia were broader and more inclusive of lifelong learning than ALW in Australia whose goals were more restricted to adult learning; ■ There was strong official recognition in both nations; ■ The costs of organising ALW and LLW, given the relative populations and other factors, were very similar, both in terms of quantum and expenditure patterns; ■ Both events made strong use of international visitors; ■ The promotional materials produced were basically very similar; ■ Both nations incorporated a series of awards for learners, for programs, and for providers in the celebration of the week; ■ Similar types of activities and events were held in both countries; ■ Both organising bodies sought out the co-operation of the media but neither would claim outstanding success in this endeavour; ■ In both countries the evaluative process has been more formative than summative, aimed at improving the initiative; and ■ Finally, in both countries the week has been judged to be a success and will continue into the future.

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Towards a More Complete Resolution of this Difficulty

As a result of dissatisfaction with the above, a detailed survey instrument has been developed as a first step towards a means of collecting the needed data to complete a truly comparative analysis. The suggested instrument collects information in the following areas: Origins of the local ALW; Managing/Co-ordinating Body; Official Recognition; Purpose of ALW; Income and Expenditure; The Co-ordination/Management Process; Degree of Participation; International Visitors; Promotional Materials; Activities and Events; Awards; Role of the Mass Media; Evaluation; Outcomes; and The Future. There are full sets of questions under each of the above areas. Colleagues who are interested should contact me for a copy of the full survey instrument.

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A Concluding Comment

This paper has presented a largely descriptive account of ALW and LLW in Australia and Slovenia but it does not apologise for that – for it is on the basis of good descriptive data that sound comparative analysis is built. There is nothing wrong with description, if it is clearly understood that such description is merely the first step in the comparative analysis process. Similarly, this paper is merely the first tentative step in the process of comparing the operation of ALW across nations.

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PROBLEMS AND PITFALLS IN INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON

WORLD PERSPECTIVE AND LANDMARKS IN ADULT EDUCATION – A CRITICAL RE-ANALYSIS

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1

Introduction

Publications in international comparative adult education in the last decade offered a new level of comparative work. This new level consists of material as well as methodology. On the material side, case studies and program descriptions became available from more and more countries, which – and here we enter the methodological field – which more often followed a structure or outline that makes them suitable for comparative purposes. Authors started making comparisons, well knowing that this is a highly subjective, „soft", interpretative, hermeneutic work, open to all sorts of criticisms.

The following research is based on two sources: On the Alexander N. Charters, Ronald Hilton's book „Landmarks in International Adult Education" (1989), presenting eight „landmark" programs – „judged by both contemporaries and later observers to have been successful" – from eight countries including an elaborate comparative analysis, and 200 case studies from 32 countries collected by Alan Knox 1986-1988 in his „World Perspective on Adult Education" (1989). Both sources represent the type of „outreach research", bringing authors from different countries together. A precondition for this type of research is a network of co-operating experts in the countries involved. Both sources document the existence of such a network and by this, indicate a level of scholarly exchange available today in international comparative adult education.

CHARTERS AND HILTON'S LANDMARK BOOK

Alexander N. Charters' and Ronald J. Hilton's „Landmarks in International Adult Education. A Comparative Analysis“ (1989) consists of two equally important parts:

First they offer a description of eight adult education programs in eight countries, written by national experts for these programs:

Country	Author	Program
Sweden	Rubenson	Study Circles
Denmark	Himmelstrup	Folk High School
Yugoslavia	Krajnc	Workers Universities
Great Britain	Fieldhouse	Workers Educational Association
Canada	Morrison	Frontier College
France	Lengrand	People and Culture
USA	Long	Co-operative Extension
West Germany	Dohmen	Volkshochschule

This part of the book is a valuable source of information in order to look beyond the local hills which often obscure our view. These program descriptions are helpful for use as textbook in seminars, even when considering that since the writing of the program descriptions some of the countries went through major changes (i.e. Yugoslavia, West Germany).

Second Charters and Hilton present a „similarities and dissimilarities assessment“, starting with a comparative description of the key elements and issues of the landmark programs. The method they employed was a rich and detailed use of quotations out of the program descriptions. This does not only illustrate their findings but also enables the reader to control the conclusions by going back to the data-base presented in the program descriptions. Here we see an important methodological gain, as this procedure increases the „objectivity“ of this type of research. And as result of their comparisons they offer a summary with „six themes which seemed to the book authors nearly overpowering in their emphasis and reiteration" (p. 194). These six reiterated themes they found emphasized throughout their program descriptions were: **1.** Passionate statements, extolling high moral standards; purposes, high minded and rightly intended: goals are global, needs assessment impressionistic. **2.** A nearly inspirational faith in individuals to transform themselves and their society. **3.** The faith in the adult education enterprise to successfully transform individuals and societies. **4.** The commitment to openness and the lack of concern for system. **5.** National trends and national goals were everywhere observed. **6.** The centrality of the learners.

EVALUATION, CRITIQUE AND QUESTIONS

This comparative analysis can be seen as a model for future research: it shows – and that seems to be new in comparative adult education – an analysis profoundly grounded on a database also available to the reader. And the six „reiterated themes emphasized throughout the program descriptions" claim to point out typical characteristics of adult education.

But there were also limitations in the database Charters and Hilton used for their observations and interpretations. Their database is limited to nationwide and successful „landmark-programs" and western industrialized countries. To examine whether their findings can be generalized the question occurs: Can these six reiterated and emphasized observations also be found in programs that are neither „landmark" nor „western industrialized countries"? To explore this question a different database – not „landmark", not „western industrialized countries" – was needed.

ALAN KNOX'S CASE STUDIES

Between 1986 and 1988 Alan Knox collected about 200 „case studies" (available through ERIC clearinghouse). They were not expected to be „landmark", and they came from 32 countries:

Country	No.	Country	No.	Country	No.
Argentina	2	Hong Kong	1	Portugal	1
Australia	24	Hungary	2	Saudi Arabia	1
Cameroon	2	India	4	St. Lucia	1
Canada	11	Ireland	15	Sweden	6
Chile	2	Israel	2	Switzerland	1
China	5	Italy	9	Tanzania	1
Czechoslovakia	2	Japan	3	United Kingdom	1
Finland	8	Korea, DPR	1	USA	13
Germany, West	14	Netherlands	20	USSR	2
Ghana	2	Nigeria	7	Yugoslavia	8
Greece	1	Norway	1		

Alan Knox also asked the authors to follow a certain outline. Both outlines can help further comparative authors to structure their research.

Alexander N. Charters/Ronald Hilton (1989) Landmarks in Adult Education Protocol for Program Description:	Alan Knox (1986-1988) A World Perspective on Adult Education Sections of Case Descriptions:
A. Program needs and identification of needs	A. Setting
B. Mission and objectives	B. Outcomes
C. Historical precedents/ antecedents	1. Goals of program
D. Cultural/societal considerations	2. Benefits to learners
E. Principal players/facilitators	C. Process
F. Operational considerations	1. Program planning
G. Evaluation standards	2. Methods of teaching/learning
H. Influences and Impact	3. Improvement, evaluation, staff-training
I. Program chapter author's perspectives	4. Participation, marketing
	D. Inputs for operation of program
	1. Participants, 2. Needs, 3. Staff,
	4. Content,5. Finances, 6. Facilities,
	7. Other
	E. Evolution, history
	F. Influences that affect(ed) the program
	G. Other

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As there were many parallels with Charters' protocol the Knox studies could be used to prove whether the Charters' analysis could be replicated with the Knox database.

SELECTED CASE STUDIES

To use a different cultural background for additional analysis, six case studies from non-western, non industrialized countries were selected (the studies will be cited in the following text with the first two letters of the country-name and the page-number given by Knox): ■ *Tanzania* (Aida Isinika): Training for rural development – governmental program. ■ *Nigeria* (Clement N. Anyanwu): Community education in Nigeria – Guinea Worm Eradication Program – Ministry of Health. ■ *India* (E. P. Burns): Hayden Hall: A Comprehensive Community Development Approach with programs in food, health care, basic adult education. ■ *Cameroon* (J. A. Nyemba): Agricultural Extension Programs in Cameroon – governmental program.■ *Ghana* (Joe K. Ansere): Ghana Modular Programme: Distance study program for teachers. ■ *Saudi Arabia* (Al Rasheed, Al Sunbul): Illiteracy eradication and adult education by a royal nationwide program 1970-1985.

There is not enough space here to report details of these studies: directly Charters and Hilton's six „reiterated themes" are checked at this database a) for confirming and b) contradicting statements. To understand contradictions, what will be looked for are c) possible methodological pitfalls and d) interpretations regarding the extended database.

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Comparison of „Reiterated Themes"

THEME 1: HIGH MORAL STANDARDS WITH LOW DEFINED OBJECTIVES

Also the additionally researched and afore mentioned studies offered passionate statements of lofty intentions: The Saudi-Arabia-study cites Mohammed „Seek knowledge from cradle to grave" (SA 9), the Nigeria-study wants „citizen enlightenment" (NI 5) and claims the „transition from tradition to modernity" (NI 18), and the India-study has „human development as overall goal" (IN 2). This confirms Charters and Hilton's conclusions of high moral standards with low defined objectives.

But there was a second type of statements which was difficult to classify and evaluate with regard to „theme 1": „helping villagers improve their quality of life" (TA 3), „to promote better living for the whole community" (NI 3), „empowering and helping the villagers ... become more self-confident and self-reliant" (IN 2) – do these statements proclaim „high moral standards" or do they describe concrete objectives? This view is a subjective interpretation and has to do with the connotation of phrases. Certainly native English speakers will do this interpretation more easily. But the native language of most of the authors (in Charters book six of eight) is not English. So what sounds like a clear statement to a native English speaker possibly has different connotations for the author and possibly for the reader, too. This pitfall of comparative research always has to be taken into consideration when written documents constitute the research database.

A third type of statements clearly was in contradiction to Charters and Hilton's conclusion. In all additionally analyzed studies many clear objectives and utilitarian goals could be found – „the usual materialistic gain should be considered"

(SA 4), „focused on increased agricultural production and a higher income level" (TA 4), „improve coffee or cotton production" (CA 4), „improve the primary health" (NI 8), and the Distance Study Teachers Program in Ghana is justified: „teacher continue to contribute to the economy by working and paying taxes while at the same time they are studying" (GH 3).

How can these differences be explained? One explanation is, that rich western countries can afford lofty and humanistic programs, while in situations were people struggle for life, programs have to give basic and concrete help. But that interpretation does not ring true: „Landmark programs" like Co-operative Extension or the German Volkshochschule also give basic and concrete help and are by no means limited to non-utilitarian humanistic topics. So another explanation for this discrepancy has to be offered: It could be, that Charters and Hilton's selection of their sample has produced an artifact: The majority of their landmark programs are multifunctional, offering a variety of courses. But the program descriptions from non-western/non-industrialized countries are mostly monofunctional: either health, or farming, or reading. It is not unlikely that describing a multifunctional program seduces authors to focus more on general aims. Compared to these „passionate statements" counting up the many well disposed concrete objectives seems trivial to the authors – and are therefore left out. Classical test theory has dealt with the pitfalls and biases produced by the sampling process (Campbell, Stanley 1967); this example shows that criteria developed in the quantitative research tradition can also be useful in qualitative comparative research.

Based on both databases and the methodological reflections an interpretation combining the utilitarian and the high moral arguments shall be offered: The authors of the program descriptions see the concrete measures in their programs overwhelmingly related to an educational philosophy with high moral standards.

THEME 2+3: INSPIRATIONAL FAITH IN LEARNER AND ADULT EDUCATION ENTERPRISE WITH LOW EVALUATION METHODOLOGY

Charters and Hilton (1989) willingly selected „landmark"-programs. A criterion for their selection was: „Each (program) was judged – often by both contemporaries and later observers – to have been successful ..." (p. 5). They wanted successful programs – and their eight authors offered them program descriptions with statements of successful accomplishments. No wonder they can summarize: „None of these programs were built upon modest aims, and yet none of their authors seemed to expect aught but success" (p. 195). What else could be expected in „landmark-programs"?

So is their finding of „inspirational faith in learners and adult education enterprise with low evaluation methodology" more than a circular definition of a selected sample? To avoid the classical validity-pitfall „selection" – it is not possible to generalize from a selected sample to the unselected population (Campbell, Stanley 1967, p. 176) – the non-landmark-database of Knox was interesting.

Several confirming statements can be presented, validating the faith in the adult learner and the adult education enterprise: „enormous benefit for the individual and the society" (SA 7), „villagers learn from each others' experience" (TA 11), „the influence of the program is in every way spectacular" (NI 22), „enthusiastic participation" (NI 5), „This is a program that is making a real difference in the lives of thousands of people in a neglected corner of the world" (IN 4).

But critical statements also can be found. The author of the Cameroon study states that farmers had bad experience with extension programs, and that a literature review gives no clear statements of increased output. Also the distance study program (Ghana) reports disappointment, and the Saudi Arabia study reports drop out problems. Here in this non-landmark-database clear limitations of the „inspirational faith“ (p. 195) Charters and Hilton stated could be found. But still the positive statements are overwhelming.

To explain this the following interpretation may be offered: When someone is asked to write about a program of one own's choice – as Knox did – it is likely that a program is chosen that is worth reporting: that is a successful program. That does not mean that authors are unable to see failure. And it does not mean that all programs are successful. Certainly most of the existing programs are successful, because other programs disappear quickly from the market. So this positive image of most program descriptions could be explained by the selection by the authors and the „sustainability“ (also derived from classical test theory) of successful programs.

Another observation of Charters and Hilton has to be discussed: In their landmark programs, they found „a curious acceptance of the efficacy of these programs without a restless searching after supportive data upon which to draw conclusions“ (p. 172) and „evaluative judgments, in which objectives, objective data, and even ... subjective data are almost unnoted“ (p. 173).

Also here the two databases show differences. Partly our additionally analyzed data support Charters and Hilton, in so far as the type of systematic school-like control and measurement is not to be found. But a lot of other control and evaluation statements are made: „production had increased threefold ... shift in leadership style from a directive to a more participatory type ... increased attendance in village meetings ... in general more villagers appeared to be taking initiative and responsibility to solve those problems that are within their control“ (TA 7f). „Continuous evaluation has been key to the success of the TRD program“ (TA 15). „Out of the twelve wells projected ... nine are now ready and functioning. ... The people ... have learnt to boil and filter (water) ... More importantly, they have grown to disabuse their minds of the age-old belief that the Guinea worm disease is an act of God“ (NI 22). And the India study reports a drastic change of the program after several months of evaluation. So evaluation indeed is a topic in our additional case studies, but in a different way than in traditional research oriented programs.

But three programs explicitly claim further evaluation – always in the context of critical statements: The more critical Cameroon study complains about the missing systematic measurement (CA 5), the only limited successful distance study program for teachers claims a „full-scale evaluation“ (GH 9), and the Saudi Arabia study wants more information for evaluation.

In trying to understand these observations – and by this interpreting them – two explanations seem possible: **1.** The need for evaluation seems to arise when programs are not successful. This could explain why Charters and Hilton in their by „landmark“ definition successful programs observed so little evaluation. **2.** Adults decide voluntarily to participate in programs. When they get what they want (= successful program), they stay, otherwise they leave – they vote with their feet. This well-known mechanism in adult education makes evaluation different from what it is in the traditional school system. Perhaps a statement like the following fulfills truly the function of a typical adult education „evaluation“: „The appreciation (of this program) is being shown by the people opting to beautify the project sites (wells) with flowers and shade trees“ (NI 15). But which evaluator, used to tests, questionnaires, and effect measurement, identifies and accepts such a statement as „evaluation“?

THEME 4: LACK OF CONCERN FOR SYSTEM

A fourth common theme Charters and Hilton described was the „lack of concern for system“ (p. 196). „Program flexibility and autonomy are highly valued and protected“ (p. 186). Repeatedly statements were made that what is important is „adapting program methods to changes in participation rather than expecting participants to make adaptations“ (p. 196).

Here again the database derived from Knox's material supplied verification: „The majority of those teachers did not receive any training“ (SA 14), the Tanzania-program has „no prescribed syllabus“ (TA 19), and the India case study explicitly claims „non-formal education“ (IN 1). Also here – as Charters and Hilton did – many statements about flexibility, openness, innovation were found.

But clearly there were statements contradictory to Charters' interpretation of „impressionistic needs identification“, „global, sweeping objectives“, „lack of concern of practicability“. There could not only routines close to the school-system be found (as described in the Saudi-Arabia, the Ghana and the Cameroon study). Even more a well elaborated and – as this author interprets it – typical adult education „system“ could be identified: A lot of effort, planning, and systematic approach is applied at the person-to-person level to make possible shared decisions and responsibility. This system does not plan in the classical bureaucratic way from top to bottom, but provides planning-possibilities at the basis, as is characterized in the Nigeria-study: „a new type of education ... that cannot be brought about at a stroke by administrative order ... (but) by organizing the people in groups to carry out what they have collectively realized to be desirable“ (NI 19). The author of the India study described systematic training efforts to increase the local credibility: „important part of the training emphasis is on staff development ... They are credible leaders and powerful change agents within their own community“ (IN 4). The Tanzania study described: „all trainers must undergo a training of trainers ... the facilitator helps to guide the process of knowledge exchange and its application“ (TA 14). This concern for flexibility on the person-to-person-level could be found for example in the Tanzania-study in the portrayal of the „team who are open, committed, co-operative and creative in helping to solve villagers' problems“ (TA 23).

„Facilitator“ (TA 14), „grass-root-worker“ (IN 4), „networks“, and „dialogic principle“ are labels that indicate a theoretical and systematic orientation (i.e.

Freire, Rogers, Illich). So a warning conclusion here is: Results can depend upon our individual understanding of the researched object. If we understand „system“ as a bureaucratic, top-down administration we indeed do not find much emphasis of such a „system“. But if we understand „system“ in a different way we discover that many authors describe a high concern for a specific „system“: a system, that enables local decisions, often made in interaction with the „participants“, preferably named „partners“.

THEME 5: NATIONAL TRENDS AND NATIONAL GOALS

As a fifth „pervasive theme“ Charters and Hilton found, that „national trends and national goals are everywhere observed and frequently lie at the heart of most of these programs“ (p. 197).

Of course the authors of the non-western countries also name historical data or employ national perspectives. But the authors put less stress on this argument – even less when taking into account that five of the six are governmental programs. Much more practical reasons – health, hunger – are nominated.

Perhaps this difference comes from the sampling method Charters and Hilton used: The authors of the landmark program descriptions were well aware that they presented their country within an international study. The Knox' case studies were mostly smaller in scale; in the different countries a „country coordinator“ asked national colleagues to write cases studies, so these authors did not feel obliged to represent their country.

So it could be concluded: Ask authors to describe a nationwide program to be compared with programs in other countries – and national trends and national goals will be mentioned. And ask them to describe just a program – and national trends will be specified much less. If this is true, then the method of producing the database influences the result. Again a parallel with classical test-theory (Campbell, Stanley 1967) can be drawn. There this bias is called „reactivity", which means that the outcome is influenced by the way a researcher stimulates the material.

Knox's material even offers a proof for this thesis. Some authors used the opportunity to send old papers presenting national systems. And immediately „national trends and national goals" showed up: The report about the Russian Znanie made statements such as „progressive Russian scientists always regarded the work of educating the masses as their second calling" (SU 14), „Adult Education in Beijing Municipality" claimed: „Since the founding of New China 1949, the Chinese government has attached great importance to the improvement of the cultural and technical qualities of the working people" (6C/2). And the colleague describing „Czechoslovakian Adult Education" declared „education of the citizen as a builder of his socialistic homeland" as the main educational function of adult education (9A/16).

THEME 6: CENTRALITY OF THE LEARNER

The last „reiterated theme" Charters and Hilton identified was „the centrality of the learners ... they are always the center of respect and affection, often the co-architects of their educational programs and destinies" (p. 197).

The additional data confirmed that observation. Perhaps a further analysis could discriminate between „caring for the learners" (i.e. „Revision of curriculum to meet the needs and desires of adult learners" – SA 16) and „caring with the learners" („the learner does not have to internalize the new knowledge if it does not suit his/her needs" – TA 13). This respect for the adult learner as an adult person who is able to decide about his/her life – even when such a person has no school career and still believes in the divine ordination of a disease – seems to be a common understanding of adult education experts in many countries.

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Consequences

The thesis outlined at the beginning stated that international comparative adult education in the last decade offered a new level of comparative work. Attempts to verify this new level led to consequences and results in three respects:

MATERIAL AND CONTENT RESULTS

As a result of the described research works also „side materials" like mailing lists, bibliographies, and other resources helpful for further research became available (i.e. Knox 1988, Charters, Siddiqui 1989). And the Knox-„World Perspective"-project triggered within two years the publication of four additional reports. This constituted a more intense and more systematic level of comparative research.

On the content level of „reassessing observations" in the enlarged database, the following interpretations of „world-wide commonalities" in adult education are tentatively offered: ■ Authors of most of the studies describe adult education programs as an interaction between high moral standards and concrete needs. ■ Most – but not all – authors describe programs positively. That may represent the reality of adult education programs since unsuccessful programs quickly disappear from the market. ■ Evaluation seems to be seen by most of the authors not as a formal external activity but as an activity pursued by the learners themselves. ■ Many of the authors describe explicitly a concern for systematic support of „grass-root" activities. „Think globally, act locally!" could best describe that position. ■ The possible expectation, that non-western programs are third class, „missionary style", or dependent on first world support can be clearly rejected. The case studies analyzed here are professional programs and descriptions, on the level of current adult education theory and practice. But again the limitations of the sampling process have to be reflected: As shown in 1.3 less than twenty percent of Knox's case studies came from non-western non-industrialized countries – too few to generalize.

These results may not seem very surprising – rather they confirm what could be expected on a national level.

PITFALLS AND PROBLEMS OF COMPARATIVE METHODOLOGY

More interestingly this analysis led to a discussion of methodological categories and pitfalls well known in the classical empirical research tradition (without suggesting that the sources used got bogged down in these pitfalls):

- Pitfall „language“: It is typical for international comparative studies that the authors of the documents, the scholars who analyze these documents, and the readers of these analyses speak different languages. My own experience as country co-ordinator for West Germany in Knox's case study project (Reischmann 1988a) is that a mere translation of national labels often is not understandable to a readership in different countries (see the contributions of Jütte to this reader); instead of labeling institutions or concepts or regulations we found it more understandable to describe them briefly, pointing out the specifics we wanted to focus on. Here lies a wide range of possibilities for misunderstanding and misinterpretation, where also the trilingual „Terminology of Adult Education/Continuing Education“ of the European Bureau of Adult Education or the UNESCO-„Terminology of Adult Education“ is of only limited help.
- Pitfall „selection“: Because of the complexity of qualitative (verbal) data, the sample used is for the most part fairly limited. By selecting the database, we can find similarities not typical for the unselected population.
- Pitfall „sustainability“: During the progress of the research work observations disappear because they are no longer available. There may be a systematic

reason behind this disappearance, so that important aspects are not represented in our final database.

- Pitfall „reactivity“: Research activity often influences the field we study, thus making our „results“ an artifact of our research activity.
- Pitfall „interpretation“: The same observation can be interpreted differently by different observers. Especially multidimensional qualitative material is susceptible to this pitfall. (Providing the database and the data used for a certain interpretation – as done by Charters and Hilton – offers the chance of verification/falsification)
- And finally there might be a pitfall „ideologically/politically selected perception“. After several, especially eastern countries have gone through dramatic political and economical changes in the last decade it might be worthwhile to reanalyze the case studies that were written before the changes and find out, if any typical biases could be identified.

Methodological arguments often hurt researchers who have spent months and months in the dirty and dusty fields of research, while the methodologist spends time in his rocking-chair beside the fireplace. One has to be very careful not to spoil the readiness to do that difficult field work by claiming unrealistic methodological standards. On the other hand: a methodological framework, which researchers can refer to before and while working in the field, makes this work easier and more reliable. New knowledge and shared experiences in methodology of qualitative research (i.e. Miles, Huberman 1984, Merriam 1988, Merrian, Simpson 1995) or in comparative research (as presented in this book) can perhaps encourage the propensity for research in this field.

EVALUATIVE PERSONAL STATEMENTS

Three final personal and emotive statements may reflect some of my introspections while working with this international material:

1. Again and again the descriptions and evaluations of the colleagues were incredibly close to my own experiences. Reading all the case studies and landmark descriptions gave me the feeling of being a member of a big world-wide brother-/sisterhood. But these similarities also gave me a latent feeling of distrust: Can adult education world-wide be so similar? Or does our investigation of the field produce similarities which make us blind to all other types of adult education?

2. Comparative international research has the image of being creative, subjective, soft, intuitive „art work" with not much possibility for interpersonal, methodological objectivity. After going through this process of analyzing, comparing, and criticizing based on a rich set of data, and rediscovering the old pitfalls known from the quantitative research tradition I feel we are now approaching a more reliable and systematic methodological basis for comparative research.

3. During that work I found it possible to build on material and methods elaborated by other scholars. For other educational subdisciplines this is standard practice, but it is rather new for international comparative adult education. This means the opening of a scientific community that builds on previous research – and on the growing personal relationship between the researchers engaged in this field. Also this is part of what I consider to be a new level in international comparative adult education.

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PROBLEMS AND PITFALLS IN COMPARATIVE ANDRAGOGY: SOME NOTES ON THE RESEARCH PROCESS IN COMPARATIVE HISTORICAL STUDIES

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①

Introduction

Since the mid-1980s the present author has been involved to a greater or lesser degree, respectively as contributor and/or project leader, in a number of international and European research projects. These projects were all devoted to comparative/historical research into the phenomena variously referred to as „adult education", „the education of adults", „adult learning" or „andragogy", not to mention numerous other terms used to define the object of study. These have included Alan Knox's study „International Perspectives on Adult Education"; a comparative historical project with Jindra Kulich called „The Organization of Social Enlightenment: A Comparative Historical Study of Social Movements and the Development of Adult Education in Europe 1750-1800"; Franz Pöggeler's series of international conferences on the history of adult education; the ESREA European research network on „Cross-cultural Influences in the Historical Development of the Education of Adults in Europe"; and the ESREA „'State of the Art' Study of Research on the Education of Adults in the European Countries". This involvement in ongoing comparative and historical research has also involved study of the literature pertaining to comparative/historical. Knowledge of the literature and the practice of research suggests, on the one hand, that there are indeed many problems and pitfalls associated with the theoretical and methodological dimensions of comparative/historical research. On the other hand, rigorous reflection upon „what went wrong" could contribute to a learning process which might enable us to „do it better next time“. Despite the tradition of research on comparative adult education, it is not as yet convinced that it has got onto the „steep learning curve“ which would raise the level of our research effort.

The following „notes on comparative/historical research“ do not have the pretension of enabling us to successfully get onto this learning curve. These notes might be read as lacking in respect for what has gone before. No apology is required for this critical position. A scientific forum has to be critical by definition, and should welcome those who adopt the iconoclast role and who manifest little respect for reputations. The focus of this contribution will be upon a discussion around a number of „key“ questions which concern the core decisions made in „research practice“. These questions address issues such as: the formulation of research questions, the definition of the research population, the research methods and research instruments used to generate data, and the interpretation of data.

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Theory in Comparative Research

Experience of research and knowledge of the literature suggests that there is a general and serious failure to provide a rigorous theoretical basis for most comparative studies. In other words, most researchers have inadequately theorized the very object which we purport to investigate in a scientific manner. This may have resulted, on the one hand, from a preoccupation with the development of specific theories of „adult education“ or „andragogy“, and the aspiration to establish a distinct discipline rather than regarding „adult education“ as a field of institutions, activities, practices and behaviours, which can be scientifically studied from the perspective of the well-established social scientific disciplines.

On the other hand, the failure to develop rigorous theoretical formulations of the object of study may have arisen as a result of the fact that many comparativists, and also many historians, are first and foremost „adult educators“ rather than „social scientists“ per se. The purpose of comparative studies has all too often been defined in terms of learning from each other rather than in terms of developing a body of knowledge and the formation of social scientific theories. Rather than identifying themselves as social scientists, adult educators all too often pertain to be generalists, who, rather in the manner of butterflies, flutter from the one source of practical inspiration to the next source of theoretical nectar. The resulting melange in comparative and historical studies is all too often unrecognizable either as good educational science or social science in terms of theory and method. How many comparative adult educators, for example, break out of the small coterie of long-known contributors to have their work published in the recognized educational and social science journals. There are, for example, generalists who are quite happily prepared „to play the part“ as historians of adult education, although the products of their endeavours ignore all recognized canons of historical research and demonstrate little understanding of the use of historical sources and their interpretation.

The argument here is that much research has largely failed to recognize and employ the variety of theoretical perspectives available to us within the educational and social sciences, and that most researchers involved in adult education have not, as yet, adequately engaged in applying contemporary developments in the social scientific literature to the theorization of the educational and social phenomena which we claim to study. This argument applies both to comparative research of the contemporary situation and to comparative historical research of „times past“. In the absence of an adequate theorization of the object of study it is impossible to generate the data which will allow us to undertake any meaningful comparisons of institutions, activities, practices and behaviours between societies either in the present or in the past.

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Defining the „Object of Study"

In the main, comparative studies of adult education are dominated by an understanding of the object of study in terms of establishing the structures of provision at the national level. Research seeks to establish similarities and differences between these structures. Notions of „system" and borrowings from system theory have often been characteristic of such work. Another frequently used approach is to engage in the comparision of forms of institutional provision in different countries, for example the major study by Agnieszka Bron. In a study such as Milestones, however, a number of different forms of provision, supposedly „typical" for a specific country, are compared. At best this understanding of forms of institutionalized provision is defined in terms of activities which are „intentional", „sytematic" and „sustained". In the work of others such as Coolie Verner, these intentional, systematic and sustained activities are understood in terms of the activities of those employed by adult educational institutions as teachers, facilitators or change agents. At best we have here an understanding of adult education as the intentional, systematic and sustained activities of „adult educators". This replacement of a „system-oriented" or „institution-oriented" understanding by an „actor-oriented" perspective does little to modify the predominant focus upon provision. It has not led, for example, to any significant comparative studies of transactions between teachers and adult learners.

The introduction of an andragogical perspective, and thus „comparative andragogy", does not necessarily introduce greater clarity into the discussion. What is the object to be studied when we engage in comparative andragogy? The core concept in andragogy is the capacity „to handle" or „to act". The question is then one of „who handles?" or „who acts?". In the work of Knowles and others, including the much under-rated Dutch andragology, andragogical action is still largely associated with the normatively-directed intentional, systematic and sustained action of the teacher, facilitator or change agent in supporting the learning efforts of adults. According to the classical definitions of Knowles, and the andragologists, the object of study is „the expert guidance of adults", while these interventions must necessarily be intentional, systematic and sustained. Van Gent, for example has defined comparative andragogy as „an historical or contemporary approach to institutionalized andragogical practices, that is to say the general system of andragogical practices and the specific institutionalized forms". In other words we are no further than the comparative study of the „institutionalized provision of expert interventions which are intentional, systematic and sustained".

Such an understanding of adult education establishes little recognition of „the handling" or „action" by adults themselves. These are defined as „non-expert" and incapable of the „expert guidance" which defines the institutionalized provision of adult education and andragogical interventions. Such an understanding excludes the phenomena of mutual learning among adults and the actions of the autodidact, or the self-directed learner. Are we to conclude that these cannot be included in the object of study for the comparativist? This would lead to a significant limitation of the phenomena which we can legitimately research within a comparative perspective.

The above approach tends, therefore, to focus upon the institutionalized forms of adult education or andragogical practices which are known in such literature as „formal adult education" in comparison with the „non-formal" and „informal". The concepts of non-formal and informal adult education have been introduced into the literature in an attempt to capture those forms of adult education which are not institutionalized to the same degree as the formal system of provision. On the one hand, the notion of non-formal adult education allows us to recognize those forms of adult education which take place in institutions, organizations and groups whose major function is not the provision of adult education. Educational activities in, for example, business concerns, churches, voluntary organizations and social movements are developed in order to support the achievement of the non-educational goals of these institutions, organizations and groups. On the other hand, informal adult education is often understood, somewhat as a residual category, as a way of capturing those manifestations of adult education which do not fit easily in the formal and non-formal categories. This residual category seeks to capture phenomena such as independent and self-directed forms of adult education, and the diversity of „incidental" adult education.

The distinctions between the institutionalized and non-institutionalized, between the expert and non-expert interventions, are essentially superficial and a-theoretical. While adult educational provision and expert guidance intervene in the life-worlds of adult target groups, the empirical evidence indicates that adult learners can take learning into their own hands whether collectively or individually, and that this can also be undertaken in an intentional, systematic and sustained manner despite the absence of institutional provision or expert interventions. We need an understanding of adult learning efforts which also recognizes „the handling" and „the action" of adult learners.

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Levels at which Data is Generated and Analyzed

The preceding comments raise important issues with regard to the levels at which data is generated and subsequently analysed. Even in the studies of the structure of provision, these problems can be significant. Is provision to be studied at the national, regional, institutional or local level? Can meaningful comparisons be made, for example, at the level of „the course"? The latter was the case in Knox's comparative study. Participating researchers were asked to describe the organizational provision at the level of discrete courses. They were effectively requested to provide the project co-ordinators with „case studies" and to collect data at this level. The immediate questions arising relate to how these „casu" were selected by the national co-ordinators, including myself for the Netherlands, how far they were comparable, and, even more worrying, were they representative? The cases selected in the Netherlands were based upon the interests of mature students in my own course on comparative education, and their choices were determined by their own professional engagement in adult education. They were in no way representative of the Netherlands. Furthermore, could they be compared across nations? Each national co-ordinator selected his cases as he or she saw fit to do. A number of my own cases were in the area of nurse education but similar cases do not appear in the case lists of other countries. What is to be compared?

Even more complicated in Knox's study is the level at which the analysis of data took place. Data was collected at the level of „the course", but the data was analyzed at a higher level. In the most impressive book resulting from the project, the analysis of trends does not take place at the level of the courses, which could not be compared anyway, nor a comparison between nations, but a worldwide analysis is made of trends in particular sectors of adult education. We have here a major methodological confusion between the level at which the data was collected and the level at which it was analysed. Furthermore, it was not made clear to national co-ordinators that the analysis would take place per sector. This would have enabled a selection case of studies from these sectors in order to facilitate a comparison.

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Selecting Participants in Comparative Research

Co-operative endeavours in comparative research of adult education, and with comparative historical research in particular raises the question as to whether research is best undertaken by academic „adult educators“ or by academics from other disciplines who also have an interest in seeking to understand and explain adult education phenomena. Although it is necessary to support existence of dedicated departments of adult education at universities both for teaching and research purposes, these must be multi-disciplinary departments drawing their staff from the foundation disciplines such as sociology, psychology, economics, anthropology, philosophy, and history etc.

In attempting to identify potential participants in co-operative research on adult education, it is increasingly necessary to turn to qualified researchers with a strong disciplinary identity who are well acquainted with the theoretical perspectives and methodologies pertaining to their discipline. In the first instance, this position is based upon experiences with comparative historical research projects. All too often participants in comparative historical research are drawn from the those researchers who are general adult educators with an historical interest. When „academic historians“ participate in research projects the differences in the quality of the research quality is all too clear to see. When asked to prepare a „review of research literature“ for their countries, general adult educators largely refer to the secondary sources in the form of the standard overviews produced by other adult educators rather the relevant literature produced by professional social and cultural historians.

This emphasis on involving specialist academic historians has been the guideline in the European research network on Cross-cultural Influences in the History of Adult Education. This project has increasingly drawn upon historians rather than general adult educators with an historical interest. Once again the different results can be clearly seen in the great variation in the quality of the research produced. While general adult educators largely made use of secondary sources, often by other adult educators, the specialist historians have tended to report on their ongoing original research. This means that we are not merely reproducing already existing knowledge, but that we are actually contributing to the body of knowledge in a serious academic fashion. Positive reviews of the publications in the academic journals by professional historians are an indication of the quality of the research work now produced by this network.

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Conclusions

In conclusion, the points made above speak for themselves and are intended to contribute to open and critical self-reflection by researchers and to contribute to the discussion about how the quality of comparative/historical research can be improved. In this debate it is important to direct attention to strenuous efforts to secure the future of high quality academic research in comparative adult education. Of particular importance in this respect is the need to get the younger generation involved in comparative/historical research. At this point in time only a small number of few young academics have an interest in this field of research. This has to be addressed if the future development of comparative research is to be made secure. It is necessary to make strenuous and continuing efforts to identify and encourage the younger generation to participate in comparative/historical research on adult education. This means that much more has to be done in order to develop an academic research forum which welcomes younger colleagues in a more systematic and supportive manner than has been the case up to now. The European Society for Research on the Education of Adults (ESREA) has made significant efforts to encourage the participation of young researchers and postgraduate students in its various networks. Arrangements have been made for an annual European summer school for Ph.D. students and the possibility for them to visit other universities for a period of time. This enables them to work with experienced researchers and acquire insights with regard to the nature of high level academic research. But this also requires an adequate basis for the training of new researchers in the different countries. We could learn something from this example of good practice.

INDICATORS OF THE „LEARNING SOCIETY“: METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF AN INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH PROJECT

Wolfgang Jütte ■ Germany

Throughout the world societies are changing into learning societies – this was the hypothesis of the research project *„Transition towards Lifelong Learning“* which was carried out jointly by the UNESCO Institute for Education in Hamburg and the National Institute for Educational Research in Tokyo. The research project generated studies of eleven countries (Australia, Burkina Faso, Canada, Czech Republic, Germany, Japan, Mexico, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Thailand) which have since been published (NIER, UIE 1997).

A catalogue of qualitative and quantitative indicators (see Annex, p. 232) formed the framework of analysis. This is a methodological procedure which can often be found in international comparative, mostly empirical educational research.

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Importance, Approaches and Models of International Educational Indicators

The significance of the „problem of indicators“ can be seen against the background that OECD has declared the development of indicators in the field of adult and continuing education to be a matter of priority (OECD/CERI 1996, p. 11). But even in the 1980s a full discussion of indicators was brought up in the UNESCO-sponsored project „Organization and Structure of Adult Education in Europe“, managed by the European Center for Leisure and Education, Prague. The attempt was undertaken to identify relevant indicators for comparison of adult education systems (Maydl 1983 et al.).

At present, under the direction of inter- and supranational institutions, a renaissance of international projects which are working with systems of educational indicators can be observed. The OECD in particular is leading the development of educational indicators, which since 1992 have been disseminated by its publication series „Education at a Glance". But the UNESCO (UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, World Education Report) and the European Commission (EUROSTAT) also play an important role by producing international comparative data on the basis of indicators. Since 1995 UNESCO, OECD and EUROSTAT have been using a common set of instruments to collect data on education.

The new demand for educational indicators is founded on the increasing necessity for more information. Educational indicators are intended to provide relevant, reliable and updated, mostly statistical data for educational research, planning and policy. Although numerous proposals for systems of educational indicators have been developed since the 1970s, the attempts to develop indicators are still in their early stages. An urgent demand for indicators on lifelong learning is stated in the OECD report of 1996:

„Most importantly, there is a critical absence of quantitative information on lifelong learning and its impact on society and the economy. Since economies can no longer rely solely on a gradual expansion of initial schooling to meet the demands for new and high-level skills, other indicators are needed that will help policy makers to improve the foundations for lifelong learning... . Understanding the factors that influence patterns of learning throughout the lifecycle will be a challenge" (OECD/CERI 1996, p. 11).

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Conceptional Development of Relevant Indicators

The educational sciences often have to deal with constructs. The notion of the learning society, which was coined in the 1970s above all by Husén (1974), is such a construct. If societies are characterized with different attributes according to the chosen perspective, then learning is regarded as the predominant characteristic of the learning society. The learning society has utopian characteristics. All members – in all educational phases and at all ages – must be guaranteed free access to learning possibilities and their learning results should be recognized by society.

First of all the problem of determining indicators which can be deduced from the working hypothesis emerged[1]. From which observable (or existing) and meaningful characteristics can the transition towards lifelong learning be deduced? Which indicators offer an insight into the learning society? As a framework of analysis (instrument) 5 groups of indicators were developed. The transition towards lifelong learning currently implies a change of perspectives regarding the dimension: a) initial education b) higher education c) adult education/training d) learning environment, and e) the global (educational) political orientation.

The starting point of the process of operationalization (see figure 1) is the theoretical term of the learning society. The dimensions deduced were on the one hand the particular educational areas (A-C) and on the other hand the „surrounding“ learning environments (D) and „global orientations“ (E). These levels of derivation have been further operationalized. So group D deals with the learning environment. As variables of the learning environment the use of electronic media (V5) and the reading practice (V6) were examined for example.

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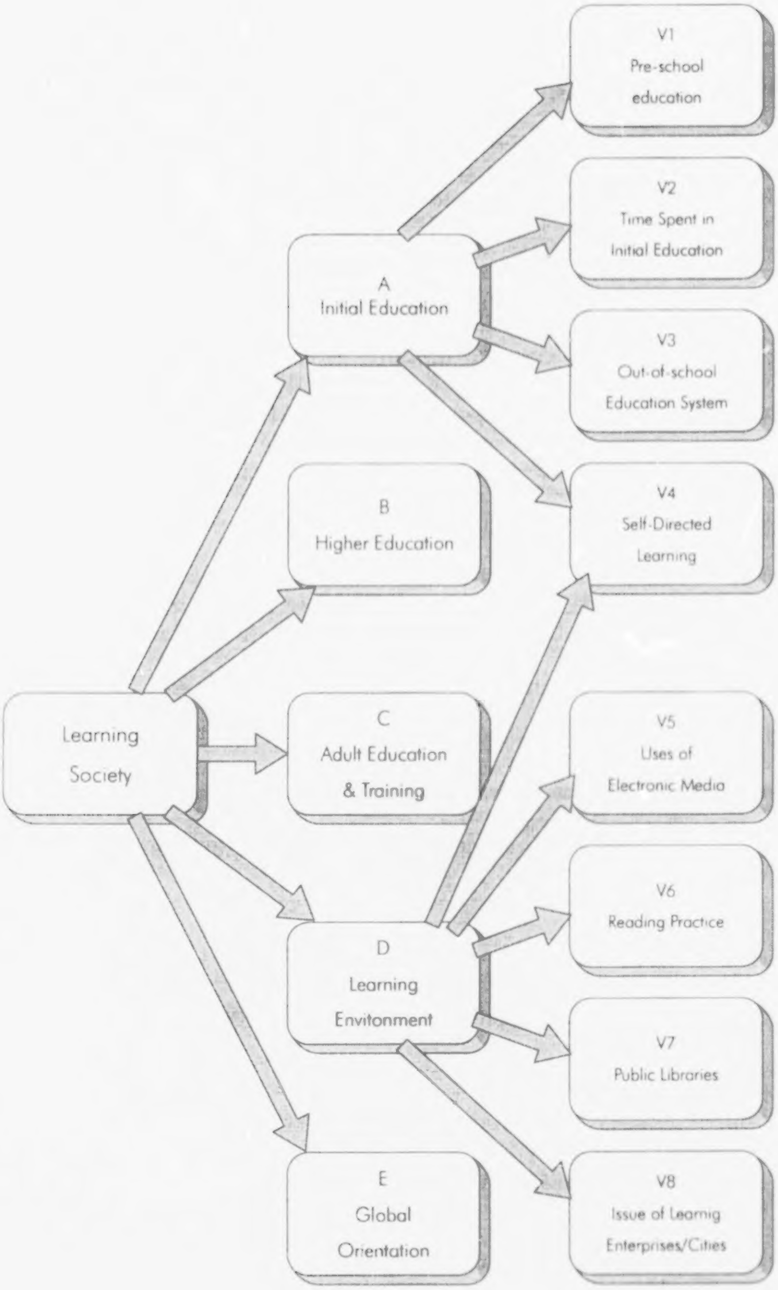
[1] The conceptional development of the set of indicators, its selection and classification, was carried out jointly by both institutes.

Figure 1: The construct of the learning society and its indicators


V1
Pre-school
education
V2
Time Spent in
Initial Education
A
Initial Education
V3
Out-of-school
Education System
V4
Self-Directed
Learning
B
Higher Education
Learning
Society
C
Adult Education
& Training
V5
Uses of
Electronic Media
V6
Reading Practice
D
Learning
Envitonment
V7
Public Libraries
E
Global
Orientation
V8
Issue of Learnig
Enterprises/Cities

One can imagine this process as an „operationalization chain" in which, according to the complexity (multidimensionality) of the phenomenon, indicators of 1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc. degree can be deduced (see table 1).

Table 1: Chain of operationalization

Phenomenon	**Indicators 1st degree**	**Indicators 2nd degree**	**Indicators 3rd degree**
Learning society	Adult Education and Training (C)	Changing patterns of funding adult education and training (C 8)	■ the diversification of funding sources, ■ the diversification of activities being funded, ■ the discourse concerning alternative financing mechanisms (e.g. self-financing, individual entitlements, „parafiscal" funds) ■ the discourse concerning the benefits to be expected from the educational investments as an adult

The theorem of lifelong learning has implications not only for adult education but for all educational areas. Due to the relational structure of the construct of the learning society the different educational areas cannot be regarded in isolation but have to be related to each other. The dimensions of the „learning environment" (D) and the „global orientation" (E) served above all to look at the education system as a whole, which is more than the sum of its individual educational areas. By doing so, it was intended to capture the horizontal and vertical connections between the different educational areas. They are in a way „meta-indicators", which can reconstruct the overall picture.

How extensively the societal sub-systems are included, is an important methodological research question. In this project we worked on the assumption that the term „learning society" does not only denote the thematic area of the education system in the narrow sense. On the contrary, the concept of the learning society aims for comprehensive contexts of education (historical, social, political, cultural dimensions etc.). Because the socio-economic surroundings have an important significance for the educational system and the learner, areas like labor market or social policy were considered.

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Research Results and Methodological Questions

The project has raised a series of practical research problems and methodological questions. Firstly these concern the different data documentation. The level of aggregation of the statistical data makes direct comparisons impossible. For example in some countries surveys on the areas of the educational and cultural sector do not exist. Another problem is the handling of the indicators set because of their volume. Indicators capture the key characteristics of a phenomenon. In this respect attempts must be made to reduce the number of the indicators further.

The diverse and complex reality of the learning society requires a stronger theoretical orientation. This necessity is obvious, for example, for the partial aspect of the learning environment. While it still seems possible to find relevant indicators for the formal areas of the education system, attempting to do the same for the role of the learning environment turned out to be far more difficult. It forms the social environment, which fosters learning, e.g. by stimulating curiosity and creativity. In so far it is necessary to capture under learning environment, in the sense of learning culture, not only material things (toys, books etc.) but also cultural codes. Statistical data about production and consumption of books, newspapers and television have only a limited power of explanation. In order to grasp the relationship between learning environments and learning biographies, qualitative approaches also need to be applied.

Studies of countries on a macro level are confronted with the problem of rash generalization. The Australian report also refers to this expressis verbis: „It is difficult, if not impossible, to evaluate the extent to which a complex, diverse, multicultural and geographically dispersed society such as Australia is moving towards the ideal of becoming a learning society. It is especially difficult to avoid generalizations which might effectively ignore the experiences of particular groups within the population who are marginalized in some way from the mainstream such as the elderly, the remote or isolated, the socially and economically disadvantaged, those who do not speak the dominant language". (Candy, Crebert 1997, p. 92)

Here the necessity for theoretical differentiation is becoming apparent. For example answers have to be found to the following questions: How should regional and social disparities be dealt with? Can the indicators be weighted or even offset against each other? How can the initial education, which has an important function of foundation, be weighted in relation to continuing education? Can a society with deficits in elementary education be on the way to the learning society? How far is the concept of lifelong learning linked with the political context, e.g. the democratization?

Some categories are meaningless for particular countries and some highly culture specific, like learning over the lifespan. Indicators can vary from country to country considerably, and even have an antagonistic significance in different contexts. So the shortening of initial education in Europe may be an indication for the transition towards lifelong learning, meanwhile in Thailand the lengthening of the time spent in school is an indication for it. In countries like Japan the concept of lifelong learning can in its political function be seen as „relieving" initial education, however, in other countries it must be interpreted and questioned as „erosion". Here the problem of judgment also emerges. If adult education is increasingly becoming part of different policy areas, is this a general indication for a learning society or for the tendency to functionalize and instrumentalize adult education through different economic and political interests? All these questions need to be explored further.

④

Methodological Advances for Comparison

Indicators of the learning society are still little elaborated. However, indicator systems can be *one* appropriate instrument to approach the phenomenon of the learning society, if they are developed within an explicit theoretical framework. Otherwise the depiction remain on a descriptive level and their explanatory value will be limited.

The indicators in this project represent a catalogue of relevant aspects of lifelong learning. Some of those listed can be useful to grasp the transition towards lifelong learning. Whether they all can contribute to comparison is doubtful.

The project has shown the deficiencies and made clear how much further methodological development is needed. The results of the project stress the significance of qualitative methods and of detail studies in international research projects. In terms of indicators there is a need for enhanced and internationally comparable indicators on adult education. Methodological advances have to be made regarding the coverage, the consistency, the validity, and international comparability of the indicators.

The use and interpretation of indicators forms a significant comparability problem. Even with conceptually adequate indicators the international comparison of adult education will remain a serious challenge due to its diversity.

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Annex

INDICATORS OF TRANSITION TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING – AN EXCERPT (CF. NIER, UIE 1997, PP. 299-303)

(A) Indicators related to the transformation of initial education

1. The level of provision of pre-school education (in particular for the milieus remote to the school culture)
2. The way the crisis and the inequalities of initial education are being exposed and dealt with in each society
3. Changes in the content, method and quality of initial education towards a lifelong learning system

3.1 Whether creativity is being considered in the national debates on the quality of education

3.2 Whether the lifelong dimension and the capacity for self-learning (learning to learn) is being considered in the national curriculum

3.3 Whether basic preparation for social participation as citizen/civic education is being considered in the curriculum and extra school curriculum activities

3.4 Whether the role of the teacher, their qualification and training is changing

(B) Indicators related to the transformation of tertiary education

1. The enlargement of accessibility of universities and other institutions of tertiary education
2. Change in the content and method of teaching and learning

3. The transfer of content between initial and further education of university professionals
4. Co-operation between institutions of tertiary education and the community and industry
5. The present relation between the financing mechanisms and the transformation of the university clientele

(C) Indicators of the changing provision-participation patterns to adult education and training

1. The way the „less visible" but increasing social demands for adult education are being monitored, articulated and responded to by the different social groups and institutions. Key indicators of changing adult education demand, provision and participation
2. Changes in the organization, content and quality of adult education and training
3. Recognition and utilization of adult education achievement
4. The transformation of work and the way the problem of the shrinking number of paid jobs, which remain an important path to adult education, is addressed and negotiated in each society
5. The directions that are being taken concerning the uses of the new social spaces created by the uneven increase of non-working-time; and whether the notion of productivity is beginning to be disentangled from paid work
6. The way the critical life transitions (migration, illness, retirement...), are being experienced by peoples and „dealt with" by institutions
7. The recomposition of the role of the state and of the other actors in the provision of adult education, versus civil society, and the ways in which societal objectives – like equality or sustainability, construction and development of democratic society – are promoted
8. The changing patterns of funding adult/continuing education and training

9. Presence of incentives for participation
10. The development of bridging mechanisms within the formal system and between formal and non-formal education

(D) Indicators related to the learning environments

1. The critical impact of the diverse learning environments on initial and adult education, by creating advantages or constraints, by stimulating or cooling out curiosity and participation
2. The impact of the media on educational participation and cultural practices; the accessibility of the other cultural institutions (museum, libraries, etc.) and of the services and products of the cultural industries
3. Within or besides initial education and adult education, the emergence of educational alternatives and innovative initiatives
4. The participation of the different social groups and sectors in the debate and social negotiations regarding initial and adult education
5. Policy measures taken to secure various spaces and facilities for learning

(E) Global Indicators related the transition of Lifelong Learning

1. Change of the formal education system and training system towards Lifelong Learning
2. The presence of lifelong learning in the official policies, and of explicit lifelong education policies and legislation
3. The life-wide development of lifelong learning
4. Changing relation between education policies and policies on labor, social, and cultural affairs.
5. Indications of lack of effective lifelong learning policies or educational synergy
6. Process of internationalization and impact on national lifelong learning patterns and policies

SOME QUESTIONS CONCERNING INTERNATIONAL PARTNERSHIP IN COMPARATIVE RESEARCH ON ADULT EDUCATION

Zoran Jelenc ■ Slovenia

The Case Study of the Research „State of the Art" Study of Research on the Education of Adults in the European Countries

❶

Background to the Research

The basic background to the research has been worked out at the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) at the request of the UNESCO Higher Education and Research Division at UNESCO Headquarters. The aim of the project (A UNESCO-UIE 92-93 Project) entitled *„Adult Education Research: World Trend Analysis"* (UNESCO 1992) was: to „produce a world trend analysis on educational research on the development of adult education. The objective was to strengthen the impact of educational research on the development of adult education and of adult basic education, and to assess the present and possible contribution of universities and other research centers to such development". It was planned to produce regional trend studies (Africa, Asia, Latin America, the Arab States, Europe, North America). The users of the reports should be „the authorities in charge of developing research policy, but also those who are implementing formal and non-formal adult education programmes and the practitioners". UIE has approached partners to take in charge, in co-operation with the Institute, the realization of the project. In carrying out the project useful methodological help could be obtained in regional workshops, organized in individual regions at which experts would undertake analysis through the production of preliminary papers and their discussion. These regional inputs should lead to an international seminar to assess the world trends and to review and develop further the recommendations proposed during the regional meetings. Assuming that researchers would be coming from different disciplines and involved in studies undertaken in different national contexts it was one of the parallel goals of the research „to facilitate the intellectual co-operation across disciplines and cultural boundaries". In the European region there were as partners included the European Society for Research on the Education of Adults (ESREA) in Slovene Adult Education Centre (SAEC)[1]. ESREA Research Project: *„State of the Art" Study of Research on the Education of Adults in the European Countries* (ESREA Undated)[2]. In its background it leans on the UNESCO project, but it does have also aims of its own. In the substantiation of the project the plan for the ESREA project refers not so much to the UNESCO needs as to the specific European needs, these being in particular: „the increasing importance of adult and continuing education as a specific element of policies for human resource development in the economic and social sectors both the national and European levels; ongoing changes in the system of funding university-based research; the current financial and manpower crises, together with the major reorientation of university-based research on education of adults, in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe; growing co-operation in research between universities in different countries; developing of a research potential in the area of adult and continuing education in higher education other than traditional universities; ... co-operation in the post graduate training of young researchers ... enhancing the mobility of researchers throughout the European Community, and transferring research knowledge and skills in support of colleagues in the Eastern and Central European countries; ... discussion ... with regard to the disciplinary, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary basis of research ..."; etc., to quote only the main needs mentioned. The document bases the need for a study on the fact that „...

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[1] This summary and all the quotations are from the document „Adult Education Research: World Trend Analysis" (UNESCO 92).

[2] This document (ESREA 92) used in the presentation of the ESREA project has been – on behalf of the ESREA Secretariat – prepared by Dr. Barry J. Hake, Centre for Adult Education, University of Leiden.

there is no detailed study... of the developments and trends which characterize the nature, organization and funding of research on the education of adults within the European Community. In particular, there is no study of the specific contribution made by university-based research to the development of the knowledge base about the education of adults...". ESREA, however, sees in the realization of this study the pursuit of its interest, by means of completed analysis of developments and trends in Europe „to propose recommendations for financial support, within the terms of the Commission's new proposals for Research and Technological Development Programme in the Field of Human Capital and Mobility, with a view to stimulating a stronger European-wide research infrastructure for the rapidly developing areas of adult and continuing education. This programme will provide support for: – the development of a Community system of research training fellowship; – the creation and development of European research network for scientific and technical co-operation; – launching of a Community system of „R&D Euroconferences". ESREA has appointed three project co-ordinators responsible for carrying out the project and has made arrangements for preparing national surveys, for which it has engaged authors whose co-operation has been secured; in addition to the authors whose co-operation for nine countries has now been promised, it has been thinking also of authors who would cover several countries or regions. The project should be carried out in three stages, during 1992-1995; here it is only first and the third stage that are covered by the UNESCO plan of research, while the second stage is intended primarily for constructing a data-base for the field covered by ESREA and for its needs; this already involves the setting-up of an information system for research on adult education in Europe.

The third background in the research has been determined through the co-ordinator of the project for Central and Eastern European and Baltic Countries (in abbreviation CEEB)[3]. For it has turned out that the background for the study of CEEB countries must in some material and methodological aspects differ from the general background of ESREA, which had been prepared by taking into consideration mostly the situation in Western European countries. Such a stand as regards the background of the research was adopted at the workshop in Ljubljana with the participation of representatives of the countries under discussion[4]. New elements in that background are: that it is necessary to compare and discuss the present situation of adult education in the countries observed and the developmental trends; ... the country studies and the synthesis overview need presentation of the overall social, political and economic situation and changes, as well as the overall situation and changes in education and adult education as a framework basis for considerations of the situation and changes in research in adult education; – that it is necessary to draw comparisons among the developmental trends for the period since 1989 (the year of great social and political changes) and the period prior to that year; – that the study must be enlarged to include all major producers of research in adult education not only university-based ones. All the more so because the UNESCO objectives clearly include universities and other research centres.

From the outlines of the three kinds of basic backgrounds it is possible to see that they are not wholly uniform. In the published report ESREA (Hake 1994) it can be seen that some differences in the backgrounds may be due to the fact that at the very beginning the ESREA research work was coming up independently of the UNESCO project. Only later on, in the continuation in close consultation, UIE and ESREA agree to co-operate and it was decided that the ESREA study would comprise the European input to the UIE world-wide study. (Hake 1994, p. 1). From this it can be concluded that ESREA has

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3 A more adequate designation of these countries would be: former socialist countries of Central and Eastern Europe and the Baltic area. The official terminology shortens the designation to the name given in the text.

[4] At the workshop, held at the Slovene Adult Education Centre in Ljubljana during January 21-22, 1994, the document „Report on the Workshop 'State of Art' Study of Research on the Education of Adults in Central and Eastern European Countries“ (REPORT 94) was adopted. This document serves also in the formulation of this part of background in our contribution.

all the time had a comparatively separate and strongly their own interest in research and that this interest rather than the general background of the UNESCO was guiding it in the research-work. This was amply shown in laying down the background for research in the area of CEEB countries. At the already mentioned workshop in Ljubljana (REPORT 1994) the representative of the UNESCO also stated that UNESCO research goals had been – in comparison with ESREA – somewhat different and, above all, broader (in what respect we shall see in the continuation).

Lack of co-ordination among the basic backgrounds has come to be felt, as we see, also inside ESREA. The research in CEEB countries was at the very beginning not planned in the ESREA project. An agreement on that came later, largely through the initiative of UNESCO, which in part sponsored the research for this area. The background for CEEB countries sought to take into equal consideration the UNESCO plan and the ESREA guidelines; here it may be added that the representatives of these countries found the background of UNESCO highly significant for an adequate realization of the research-work. This is true in particular of the inclusion of the analysis of socio-economic circumstances and inter-cultural differences when determining the topics of the research and deciding on research locations.

In the continuation of our contribution we shall critically touch on some topics of research and the methodological approach in research-work, and we shall seek to sum up our experience gained in co-ordinating the research in CEEB countries.

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Topics of Research

The topics of research are clearly closely related to the background for research. From the backgrounds presented above one might conclude that in the course of research-work certain differences as to topics have emerged. Whereas UNESCO's basic plan offered only a general orientation as regards topics and in research they should be determined with regard to the overall goals of the project, ESREA prepared special guide-lines (ESREA Undated) giving a fairly precise proposal of topics to be studied. This is grounded (Hake 1994, p. 3) on the belief that through such an elaborate research instrument reporters from individual countries would be helped in structuring their data, which would subsequently facilitate the analytical phase and the preparation of the integrative report.

Doubtlessly the instrument submitted (in fact it contained items determining central research questions) was useful and had a significant role in carrying out the research-work. Authors of national reports were in this way directed in determining the topics of research. This also helped them to achieve something which is significant in any comparative study: a uniform definition of topics for comparison of countries mutually included in research and for the drawing-up of a joint final report.

Its shortcoming, however, was – in particular if proceeding from the background of the UNESCO project – that the research was as to its content too narrowly formulated. In setting the research questions no explicit questions were asked about social circumstances and about the systemic organization of adult education. This becomes apparent when we look at which question were posed by the research instrument. The research questions suggested were as follows (ESREA Undated), **a)** organizational infrastructure: sources and channels for funding; mechanisms for allocation of funds; assessment of output and quality control; policy- and practice-related questions with regard to fundamental and applied contract research; research priorities; forms of co-operation in applied contract research (government and partners); systems for the inventarization of research; **b)** internal organization of University-based research: number of institutions and their location; dominant themes; disciplinary basis; balance between quantitative and qualitative research methods; channels for the publication of research results; language(s) for dissemination of research results; **c)** continuing professional (human resource) development: organization and financing of post-graduate training; registration system for dissertations; professional development of experienced researchers; national organizations for research on the education of adults; meetings of the researchers; funding participation in conferences; available bibliographical sources and journals; **d)** European activities: forms of co-operation in the countries of the EC and with other European countries; organizing and financing of these activities; financing participation in conferences; assistance for the translation of researches in other languages; training opportunities to encourage the learning of other languages; **e)** analysis of developments and trends for the five-year period (1989-1993).

From the topics as presented it can be seen that it was highly pragmatically oriented. It was dealing with partial issues of practice in research-work rather than with broader strategic topics of the position and role of the research of adult education in a given national or global context and as a constituent part of developmental policies. One gets the impression that the research in the first stage was intended above all for the realization of the second stage, that was the shaping of the data-base for the needs of ESREA, which was otherwise distinctly planned in the research plan of ESREA.

Of course the above mentioned delimitation as regards topics proved not wholly adequate in particular for CEEB countries, but something similar might be found to be the case also in other areas of the world encompassed by the UNESCO project. It is a fact that in CEEB countries it is not a detailed study of the organization of research that would be of such topical importance as the already mentioned questions of the broader social significance of this field of research-work. In these countries the position of adult education in general and of its research in particular is so weak that many of the questions set in the guide-lines of ESREA are, at least for the time being, wholly of secondary importance. Therefore they also could not be met with any answers worth much. This is of course the reason why the CEEB countries as regards the content had set quite other priorities in the guide-lines. In the foreground were questions like: characteristics and trends of social development; the situation and position of education in general and of adult education within the general context (the position in the whole system; administration and legislation; organizational structure – network of providers; infrastructure; financing; needs; modernization and changes); the situation in position of research activity in general and in adult education (here it was possible to use ESREA guide-lines, but it has been necessary to add: institutional distribution of research also outside universities; priorities in research from the viewpoint of state policy, market, and social partners, researchers and international organizations – all this according to topics of prime importance, to financial support, to ways of decision-making); in research it was important to include a comparison of periods before 1989 and after that year.

ESREA guide-lines as regards the topics of research are to be taken flexibly. This applies not only to research in CEEB countries but also to the Western European ones. The same is found also in the ESREA report (Hake 1994 p. 3), although it was not found necessary to modify the research instrument during the research. It is clear, however, that strict attention to the questionnaire is essential, if we want to develop the data-base, which is no doubt a significant goal of the ESREA project. The reason why the research in CEEB countries was in its content complemented as mentioned is perfectly clear: the accumulated data had to be sensibly elucidated in the light of social and political circumstances which are in these countries highly specific.

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Approach to Research

As for the methods of research and research procedures both UNESCO as well as ESREA are in their backgrounds very general. The essence as defined by the two key organizations is: that it is necessary to include in the research selected key-researchers who work out the basic research report for their area (country, narrower area); that on the basis of such reports discussion is organized at the regional workshop; that a joint report for the whole region is worked out (according to UNESCO for selected regions of the world); that on the basis of regional reports an international seminar is held „to assess the world trends and to review and develop further recommendations proposed during the regional meetings“ (UNESCO-UIE 92-93). ESREA adds to this in some detail (ESREA Undated) that any research-worker who in agreement with ESREA participates in the research of the national or narrower geographical area report should conduct at least four in-depth interviews with acknowledged experts in his geographical area. Additionally, for the purpose of gaining additional empirical data it would be possible to use secondary sources of published information. These case studies are to be subsequently analyzed by project co-ordinators.

The adequacy of the envisaged research approach understandably cannot be assessed merely from the viewpoint of ideally conceived and – according to scientific methodology – adequately organized comparative research. It has to be taken into account that the guide-lines for the methodological realization of the research had to be determined by realistic circumstances of the research. It is very important to note that for the purpose of carrying out the research here referred to there was, on the part of the initiators of the research (UNESCO, ESREA) no money available (UNESCO provided only a minimal amount as a seed-money for each of the regional workshops and for the international seminar). Accordingly this was a case of voluntary research-work where – if you want to carry out your plan at least in the main – it is necessary to put up also with less perfect research approaches.

Already the approaches recommended by ESREA called for fairly intensive co-operation on the part of a greater number of researchers in every country.

The ESREA report (Hake 1994) does not make it clear to what extent they in fact managed in every country to obtain in addition to the principal researcher at least another four experts to co-operate in the research-work; but the final report (because of the incomplete state of the materials collected it was called „Draft Project Report") permits the conclusion that this kind of co-operation has in all likelihood not been realized in the envisaged extent. But, as said already, this can be understood in view of the absence of stimulating research circumstances. But it is another question whether this can be regarded as an extenuating circumstance when evaluating the purely methodological adequacy of research.

For the sake of comparison we shall outline how the research was carried out in Slovenia [5]. In the Slovene case we took as the basic background the requirement that all empirical data (both quantitative as well as qualitative – opinions, stands, suggestions) have to be acquired directly from those persons and/or institutions who are sufficiently competent to give reliable data. In doing this we modified the instruction of ESREA that data should be given only by selected (minimally four) acknowledged experts. Through such an approach almost all the institutions and researchers that were in the period under investigation engaged in the research of adult education could supply us with data on all the research-work carried out by the researchers and institutions. In particular, we were compiling data from competent administrative services – ministries which to a larger extent commissioned and financed the research of adult education. Such a realization of the research made it necessary to prepare four different questionnaires to collect data. These were the questionnaires for: **a)** research institutions, **b)** researchers, **c)** projects, and **d)** administrative services. Thus we included: 11 research institutions (seven of them working within the framework of the University), 23 researchers, 33 research projects, and 3 administrative services. The questionnaires involved – beside the data asked for by the ESREA guide-lines (state of organization, fields and conditions of research and training of researchers) – also information on the views concerning the position, developmental opportunities and trends in research and also suggestions for an improvement of the current situation; for each project a reasonably accurate collection of all the necessary data was made; and from the administrative services not only data on the extent and the financing of the research in adult education were compiled but also their viewpoints, concrete measures and standpoints concerning their policy towards research in this field.

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[5] Here it is of course necessary to say that for the research some financial means were received from the Ministry of Science and Technology; but as the amount received was not sufficient, the costs had to be met in part from other SAEC means. With the financial means available we could meet only the costs of the organization of the research and of the work of researchers collecting and analyzing the material or preparing the report, whereas persons giving us interviews and institutions sending their answers, could not be paid for their co-operation and this was carried out on voluntary basis.

Such an approach was recommended also to authors of case-studies in other CEEB countries, but it was or could be followed only by some, and not in such an extensive form. In most of the CEEB countries the research was carried out to the best of individual abilities, as far as experts could become engaged and as far as they really had access to data and sources.

The next methodological question which has to be asked in this research is the question of the selection of the people in charge of the national case studies. The ESREA guide-lines say nothing on this point except that they should be „established researchers who work at universities ... and ... active members of ESREA". We have no reason to doubt the quality of the selected persons in charge of the research and still less to doubt their adherence to ESREA. But of course it remains a question how far the selected persons in charge could – under the circumstances described – become engaged and how much appropriate access to research was open to them. It seems that the criterion of the selection of the person in charge was – along with other qualities – primarily their good will and readiness for co-operation. My experience from the research that I myself co-ordinated tells me that this is not enough. I think that for research of this kind it is highly important in which institution the research is being carried out. It need not be a university research institution that would be the only appropriate organization. But highly suitable for this purpose might well be an institution which is engaged in the research and development of the systemic organization of adult education, and of course researchers closely related to this field. As an example I can again quote Slovenia, where the research was performed by SAEC, which is an institution for development and promotion of adult education in Slovenia. By pursuing its basic function such an institution is highly motivated for the study of any issue concerning the systemic organization and policy of adult education, also when the themes are narrowed down to the question of research in this field; this can be shown also in the financial support from one's own means if others are not available.

The question to which both UNESCO and ESREA were, in their proposals and guide-lines for the research, paying too little attention to the definition of some terminological points and concepts important for research. If on the present occasion we do not re-open the question of the definition of the term and concept of „adult education“ itself – though it turned out that in the course of the research it did come up, having been raised in the French country report (Hake 1994, p. 3) – we can ask ourselves what is by whom understood under the term „research“. As an example I might quote the definition of research from the Law on Organization and Financing in the Field of Science and Technology of Slovenia. According to this Law research activity comprises „the basic and the applied research and development“. The basic research is „directed at search for new general knowledge and the laws underlying it“; applied research is „directed at the acquisition of knowledge and of understanding with the view of deciding on the ways in which we can satisfy our understanding and the defined needs“. And the development is the „systemic use of knowledge and understanding acquired through applied and basic research and from practical experiences, directed at creating new materials, aids, systems, and methods ...“; this process includes also the designing of products, preparing of prototypes, processes, services and organizational system or their improvement respectively. It is my opinion that these definitions are indeed up-to-date and that they reach beyond the former conception according to which the developmental activity was kept sharply distinct from „pure" research. The least that we establish when accepting the formulations of research which I quoted is the fact that research is by far not merely the domain of the university and the university staff, and that research is a constituent part of all the field of life and work. This applies not only to natural-science and technological fields but also to social sciences. Developmental research in adult education comprises many elements which are otherwise characteristic of developmental research, e.g. the developing of systems, models, new institutional forms, programmes, methods, etc. By limiting the ESREA project to university-based research the fields and scope of research were essentially curtailed.

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Final Conclusions

I do not doubt for one minute that the projects of UNESCO and ESREA have been and continue to be useful, if not even indispensable. This claim is true if I am referring here to the envisaged objectives of both projects, as well as if we consider the activities triggered off by this research among researchers and adult education experts or perhaps the developmental changes which will follow from the research performed. Research is at any rate also a way for a particular discipline to get better organized; if not only through the research activity itself and the activities following it, but also through a critical appraisal of the work performed (e.g. of the plan of the topics and of the methodological approaches in research) and with further improvement of the quality of research.

Of outstanding value has been and continues to be the „State of the Art" Study of Research on the Education of Adults in the European Countries for the CEEB countries. In this field, on the basis of the research carried out or along with it, there are being triggered off processes of organizing and re-organizing, or international co-operation and of developmental changing; this can be said even if at the same time we have critically assessed the course and the conducting of the research. In similar terms we can speak of the usefulness of the research for ESREA and – if taking a look at global circumstances – for UNESCO.

In my evaluation I therefore consider the project to be important and necessary both for the prospective development of the research of adult education as well as for the development of adult education in general. The researchers and those co-operating in the project deserve praise for the work performed, especially if we take into account the circumstances under which the research was carried out.

I am afraid, however, that the research was begin carried out in highly different objective circumstances and that these have significantly affected the methodological value of the research. In view of the fact that we have not everywhere received either the necessary data or the most vital data (concerning the credibility of sources from which they have been taken). Also the report for CEEB countries can be designated – similarly as was done by Hake (1994) – as a „Draft Project Report" or a report which can present only the basic elements of the research issues and can serve as a good basis for a methodological analysis of the research performed. Clearly the most contentious job is the drafting of the joint report, hence the work on a comparative study in the true sense of the word, with all the necessary attributes determining the basic requirements of comparative research. (e.g. Charters 1989, pp. 3-23). In order at least in part to make up for the methodological shortcomings and the partial unjustifiableness of the drafting of a joint synthetic report it seems purposeful to do at least two things: ■ together with the synthetic report to publish also all the national reports sent in, and ■ on the basis of a critical evaluation of the deficiencies of the research performed hitherto – to continue with the research and as far as possible in order to make up for the shortcomings and deficiences that may have occurred.

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EXPERIENCING A DIALOGIC APPROACH

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Problems and Chances in a Micro-Research Project in Canada and Venezuela

This paper is intended to be a contribution to comparative international research methods and is directed at the newcomers in the field. It is hoped that those lines will help them put some realism into their planning or some balm, if they experience some very well known but seldom described problems. It will describe and analyze the process through which two research teams went when making comparative research on the *perception of the effects of university studies on adults' life*[1] a micro-research conducted in Montréal (Canada) and in Caracas (Venezuela). The context of the research and a statement of the pursued objectives will first be presented. Then, the dialogic approach used will be described. The paper will end with brief comments on some of the problems encountered.

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The Context and Objectives of the Research

THE CONTEXT: A JOINT PROJECT

The Université de Montréal and the Universidad Simon Rodriguez (Caracas) had signed an agreement within which professors involved in research in Andragogy would conduct joint research projects. The agreement stipulated that the research teams would be formed by interested professors and students, and the research projects developed would create an opportunity to train students.

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[1] See Madeleine Blais and Arminda Zerpa Pulido (1992): Family, Social Life, and Leisure: Cultural differences among students in Caracas and in Montreal. McGill Journal of Education 27 (2), p. 150-164.

The languages used for discussions would be French, English and Spanish although only French (in Montréal) and Spanish (in Caracas) were the two mother tongues used. It was also suggested that, as for as possible, both teams would integrate the same process and that the chosen research project would be run simultaneously in both countries.

Finally, it was agreed that the main researcher from each team would travel to meet the other team at specific, crucial moments. The travelling expenses would be financed by small grants that could be obtained from both countries.

Two professors, one from each university, expressed interest in working on a first joint project and were identified as the main co-researchers. The work began from a recently published study on the effects of a return to study (with or without the educational paid leave) on various dimensions of adult life: work, family life and leisure. This study was then used as a starting point for discussions that led to the choice of a feasible joint research.

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE JOINT PROJECT

The two co-researchers, had in common a strong interest in exploring the learners' reality. Two sets of objectives were identified. The first set was related to the topic itself. More specifically, the research wanted: ■ to find out the effects that „becoming a student again" can have on various dimensions of the adult life. Effects being taken to mean either reactions or perceived changes in a specific context that is, how do adults experience their studies? Do the studies cause reactions and perceptible changes among adults' relationships (spouses, children, parents, friends, colleagues)? It was hoped that this knowledge would help adjust some aspects of university programs; ■ to determine whether there were cultural differences in adults' perception of the effects of studies, that is, comparatively in Caracas and in Montréal, were there major differences from one country to the other?

A second set of objectives was related to the interest in the development of a *joint research program* which would involve graduate students from both universities. Before deciding about the whole program, the feasibility of the project had to be ascertained and the major problems overcome.

It was thus decided to start with a small scale research, something like a pilot project developed in a climate of mutual learning.

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The Research Approach

Generally, when only one researcher or one team is involved, the concept of research methods is limited to methods of gathering and of analyzing data. It appears that when several researchers or teams join together, the whole research process must be discussed thoroughly. In the present case it meant that each phase undertaken was preceded by considerable discussions about the „hows“ and the „whys“ were made. This mode of acting can be named a „dialogic approach“, which was used throughout the whole process.

1. PHASE ONE: DEVELOPING THE RESEARCH PROJECT – METHODOLOGY-IN-THEORY

After having established that the compared phenomenon would be the effects of university studies on various dimensions of the adult's life, the two main researchers met in Montréal and began their dialogic approach. The first discussions focused on the key concepts of the research: impact, family, social life, leisure, personal life. Questions were raised such as: ■ What is meant by „impacts“? ■ What is the difference between „impacts“ and „effects“? ■ Are there differences in French and in Spanish? ■ Which of these concepts better convey the research aims? ■ What is meant by „family“? – „leisure activities“? – „personal life“?

Each of these concepts having a different connotation in both countries, the question raised was: which wordings are equivalent expressions? As an example, cultural differences appeared particularly important in the way in which family and leisure were perceived. To adjust to that reality, from the family concept, the notions of „immediate" and „enlarged family" had to be taken into account; and two concepts that could encompass the concept of leisure – „diversion" and „entretenimiento"- were added in the Venezuelan research.

Choosing research tools

After the key concepts had been defined, and the variables were identified, the research tools were then discussed. The in-depth semi-structured interview was chosen for the following reasons. First it was felt that a valid questionnaire could not be built since not all aspects of the effects of studies were known. It was also believed that the respondents would more easily agree to an interview than to writing down answers to a questionnaire. The interview would explore more thoroughly the interactions between the different dimensions of adult life. Finally, it was hoped that the cultural differences would emerge more easily.

Based on a few preliminary interviews, a flexible interview scheme was designed. It was intended to be used for guidelines. In order to allow the expression of cultural differences, it was decided that each respondent would be asked to define the different life dimensions. Questions were introduced to establish the respondents' profile.

Discussing the sampling procedure

The selection procedure of the respondents was discussed at length. It was agreed that the comparability of the results was related to that decision. A certain number of criteria, adapted to the situation of each of the two institutions where the research was conducted, served to identify the student population.

Finally, the major phases of the research were identified and the meetings with the two teams were scheduled in alternation. No problems were expected in building the samples nor in gathering the data. It was thus decided that a meeting to discuss the methodological aspects of the analysis of the data would be called in Caracas after a few months.

2. PHASE TWO: GATHERING DATA – METHODOLOGY-IN-PRACTICE

Phase two was a reality test. It showed that the planning was too optimistic. First, a general strike of the university professors, which lasted several months, delayed the beginning of the research in Caracas. Then, problems concerning the sampling procedure and the interview technique arose.

The sampling procedure

In Montréal, the sampling procedure went fairly well, but not as planned. It had to take into account the characteristics of the population, which included a greater proportion of women. Thus, the men meeting the criteria were contacted and, as to the women, they were chosen randomly.

In Caracas, when the team could start contacting the subjects that had been randomly selected, it met a number of refusals, up to the point when the team had to choose another selection strategy. However, because the Venezuelan team was very much concerned about the comparability of the sample, a new strategy had to be agreed upon with the Canadian counterpart. This added to the already substantial delay. Finally, it was decided that the team had to adjust to this new set of criteria taken from the reality of their milieu. Recourse was made to volunteers.

The interviews

Since the data collection was contributing to the comparability of the results, the interviewers from both teams – graduate students involved in studies in adult education – rehearsed (pre-tested) their interview techniques.

In Montréal, the respondents seemed to be more open in unveiling their perceptions, in describing the family reactions and the problems encountered because of their return to the university. In Caracas, the interviewers did not gather as much information as expected: the respondents were speaking a lot but telling very little about themselves. At first, the interviewers questioned their own technique and asked for more coaching. The problems were discussed at length. They realized that they felt some uneasiness due to the fact that the interview technique was based more on listening to what the respondent had to say spontaneously rather than on precise questions. In their daily life, asking questions was the „normal“ way of gathering information. The respondents were expecting questions and felt lost, since only cues were given, such as: „Tell me about your studies ... Describe how your family reacts ...“.

There were also concerns about too much wandering away from the main subject. This was considered as a cultural trait and used in order not to unveil what was felt as „private life“. Another problem mentioned was the omnipresence of the phenomenon of social desirability; it was perceived as „surprising“ by the professors as well as by the students-interviewers who, before the research began, had thought the respondents would answer very freely. Finally, the notion of privacy was brought up. Both the interviewers and the respondents were reluctant to speak of what was perceived as very personal. This raised the questions: What is privacy in various cultures? How can information be gathered within the limits of the privacy of the person interviewed?

3. PHASE THREE: ANALYZING DATA

The two teams worked separately on the identification of the *units of meaning*. Once that long operation was completed, the main researchers met to pursue the analysis. An open model was chosen, i.e., there was no pre-set analytical frame, it was created on the basis of the interviews.

Long discussions went on to clarify the meaning of numerous statements (units of meaning), taking into account the cultural context. All the statements collected in Caracas and in Montréal were reduced to synonym grouping, then categorized without country distinction. This process lasted several weeks. Then the results from each country were established.

It was understood that the same procedure would be followed for the content analysis of each theme. Unfortunately, because of lack of time, only part of the analysis could be done during that first session. A second session had to be planned, and was held in Caracas several months later. This long delay, as well as the financial problems that had arisen during the last part of the research, jeopardized the prospect of a „joint research program", and tempered the enthusiasm of the two teams.

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Some of the Results

The similarities and the differences between the two samples were identified and discussed. It appeared that the perceptions of effects of the studies on the various dimensions of adult life were more often similar than different. The area called „personal life" could not be explored at length in Caracas because of cultural resistance: very few respondents had described significantly the changes that occurred in their attitudes, ways of being, etc. The comparison between changes observed was not possible; however, a difference in the willingness to unveil what was perceived as being part of the respondents' private life was clearly identified.

The cultural differences were shown mainly in the *description* of three of the four dimensions explored: family life, social life, and leisure activities. For instance, during the preliminary discussion, it was anticipated that there would be a difference in the perception of family, so a distinction was made between immediate family and extended family. As noted earlier, the respondents were invited to define the family. From spontaneous identification of the persons constituting their immediate family, four types of definitions were obtained: **1.** Persons who have blood relations and/or marriage relations, and who live together **2.** Persons who live together as a couple, with or without children **3.** Persons who live with their children **4.** Persons who have blood relations but do not live together.

In Caracas, the most common description (32%) corresponded with definition 1; the next most frequent was definition 2 (26%). In Montréal the most frequent description (39%) corresponded with definition 2.

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Comments on Some of the Problems Encountered

Briefly, two sets of problems were encountered: problems related to our methodological choices and problems related to the context of the research.

Some problems were related to the methodological choices made at the very beginning of the research. Here are a few: First, the use of the in-depth semi-structured interview in a country where speaking openly of what is considered „private life" is difficult, was not the most appropriate choice. The enthusiasm of the Venezuelan team in learning a new research technique probably prevented them from realistically evaluating the reactions they encountered.

The sampling procedure and the process of comparing results are examples of decisions which, although thoroughly discussed, lacked realism. Selecting randomly 50 respondents out of 150-200 students seemed so feasible! Also, trying to conform to a rule of comparability in settings, samples and interview procedure, while incorporating essential differences, represented a challenge the teams were not well enough prepared to face. Finally, during the process of comparing the data, it was difficult to maintain an equilibrium between looking at what was universal and what was reflecting the cultural differences underneath the common phenomena observed. For example, from the list of effects of the family life, it could be concluded that they were similar in both countries. However, when considering the extent of the family in Venezuela, one could question if the effects perceived there were comparable to those mentioned in Montréal.

Some of the major problems related to the context of the research were the following: insufficient financial support that was limited to the travelling expenses; difficult communications in-between the face-to-face sessions: the only means of communication was the regular mail – the long-distance calls had to be paid by the researchers themselves, which made them almost unaffordable, and the electronic mail was not accessible to the Venezuelan counterpart. Finally unforeseen events such as the professors' strike caused too many months' delay in the project.

Despite these problems, the dialogic approach chosen had many advantages such as: ■ closer awareness and understanding of different aspects of the other culture; ■ joint exploration of the adaptation needed in the research design; ■ pleasure in working with a team of students and professors eager to discuss their views and ways of doing research.

The dialogic approach is certainly applicable in comparative international research. However, very effective means of communication at a distance, such as the interactive electronic mail, are required. A sufficient budget is needed. A contingency plan must be established in case of an unpredictable event, such as a strike.

TRANSLATION DIFFICULTIES AND THE IMPORTANCE OF TERMINOLOGY WORK IN COMPARATIVE ADULT EDUCATION

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The problematic nature of translation only becomes apparent when the transfer of meaning obviously fails and communication is prevented. Probably everyone who has stayed in another country and language region has experienced failed communication in the form of misunderstandings in situations of daily life. The Babylonian language chaos creates barriers to communication.

But experts also experience this learning process regarding the practical implications of the problems of translation and terminology in a professional context of an international seminar or during a research trip. Research work on adult education in other countries is always accompanied by translation mistakes which often impede technical communication. Starting from our own understanding of „adult education" which is shaped by our own national structures in adult education, we translate the term literally and assume that the term has the same contents. If we are lucky the misunderstanding will soon be cleared up as we carry on talking and the reasons for the unsuccessful communication will become obvious.

The success of technical communication in an international context depends on translation. Increasing internationalization and in particular the process of unification in Europe raise the question of the status of the transfer of meaning and the act of translating with a new urgency.

Translation-orientated work in the field of terminology represents a desideratum of research in adult education. Up to now it has mainly been conducted by supranational organisations; UNESCO in particular has made endeavours in the field of international language standardization (cf. Titmus et al. 1979). Against the backdrop of the European process of integration, work in the field of multilingual terminology in adult education is becoming more urgent all the time. This is verified by the terminologies which have been published recently (cf. CEFEDOP 1996). However, they are restricted in the main to vocational training, because this is where business and politics generate a mounting call for a standardization of terminology in Europe.

Every examination of adult education in another language and culture area is to a particular extent confronted with the problems of translation and terminology.

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Tools for Translation

Multilingual Terminologies and Glossaries

Attempts by international organizations so far to draw up multilingual terminologies and thesauri for adult education reveal the imminent difficulties in finding the respective equivalent in the foreign language. The existing multilingual terminologies are often incomplete and have not kept pace with the general expansion and the shift in the meaning of terms which has taken place, especially in the field of continuing vocational training (cf. European Office for Adult Education 1980). There is also the fact that they are principally restricted to the English- and French-speaking areas.

One new tool for translation is the multilingual terminological database „Eurodicautom" of the European Commission's Translation Service. It was initially developed to assist in-house translators, but it can now be consulted by everybody through the World Wide Web (www.echo.lu/edic). This database contains more than 5 million entries – technical terms, abbreviations, acronyms and phraseology – in twelve languages. It is particularly helpful in the case of less widely-used languages.

All work in the field of multilingual terminology is faced with the „misery" of translation. This problem requires a brief reflection. Up to now it has mainly been applied linguists who have dealt with issues of technical terminology and translation. I will refer to some of the central results of their work in the following, with a strong emphasis on the practical consequences for comparative research in adult education.

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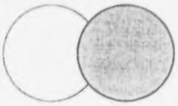
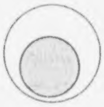
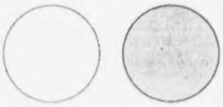
Problems of Translation and Terminology

The layperson usually imagines that sound knowledge of the source and target language and – just in case – a good dictionary are adequate initial requirements. These are indeed a *conditio sine qua non* but are in no way sufficient in technical translating. An extended concept of translation must be taken as the starting point.

In the discussion from the point of view of the science of translation the term „equivalence" plays a central role. It expresses the correspondence of pairs of terms from the source and target language as far as their contents are concerned. The functional equivalence of terms is aimed for. So the act of translation doesn't mean carrying out a word-for-word translation of terms from the source language into the target language; rather the *contents* of the terms must be transferred. The translation process is concerned with achieving functional equivalence between two terms. There are various degrees of equivalence. Here four different cases are taken as ideal types which can be represented graphically as follows (see table 1) (cf. Arntz, Picht 1991, p. 160):

Table 1: Degrees of equivalence between two terms

1 Complete conceptual equivalence	
2 Parial equivalence, overlapping	
3 Inclusion; a term merges into another	
4 No conceptual equivalence	

The postulated ideal typical equivalence, one-to-one correspondence, can hardly ever be achieved in practice. Because unambiguous definitions are almost impossible, an unbridgeable gap between the source and target language will usually remain.

Because the meaning of a term can only be worked out completely from the context, it is always a case of interpretative translation, based on interpretations and judgements. Translating represents a process of problem solving in which there is a great variety of possible interpretations. Finding an adequate translation, therefore, usually also means getting to the „heart of the matter". The reverse is also true: a lack of conceptual clarity often indicates a lack of understanding of the research object.

The real problem of translation results from the ambiguity of terms. Here there is, for example, the danger that „interference" occurs, i.e. that contents overlap because of the similiarity of language structures. Lexical interference is often termed *faux amis* (false friends) in the relevant literature, because one is encouraged to draw false analogies. For example an American *high school* is by no means comparable to a German *Hochschule*, although there is a strong similarity between the names. In some cases word-for-word translations suggest understanding without it actually being achieved.

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Problems of Translating Adult Education Terminology

I want to illustrate the complex nature of translation using some terms of English, German, French and Spanish adult education as examples.

The translation of everyday vocabulary, technical and descriptive terms of adult education in another language does not cause any great methodological difficulties. From evening class (*Clase nocturna/Cours du soir*) via distance learning (*Enseñanza a distancia*) and language laboratory (*Laboratorio de idiomas*) to certificate (*Certificado*) linguistic equivalents can certainly be found with the aid of dictionaries or multilingual terminological databases. It becomes evident that it is terms of adult education which include complex realities which represent pitfalls – and are therefore of interest here – i.e. the terms relating to the philosophy of adult education (popular education, adult education, continuing education, civic education, community education etc.), the terms relating to the organization (formal, non-formal adult education, non-governmental organizations, social initiatives, study leave etc.) and expressions for institutions.

There is, for example, the Spanish term „*Educación Popular*" which could be translated in German as „*Volksbildung*". However, the German term refers to a different period from a socio-historical point of view. Therefore, the translated term „*Volksbildung*" certainly does not have the same meaning as the Spanish term „*Educación Popular*". This in turn has different characteristics in Latin America to those in Spain which makes it even more difficult to distinguish the concept. You will search in vain for a direct counterpart to the German term „*Politische Bildung*" in many other countries. Although in the terminology edited by the European Office for Adult Education (1980) the English term „*Citizenship education*" and the French term „*Education civique*" are named, it can be doubted whether those are equivalent. Because the German concept of *Politische Bildung*, „includes not only civic studies, but also provision dealing with social problems and the relationship of the individual to society; seminars on the representation of employees' interests within companies are also part of political education." (Nuissl 1994, p. 53)

Furthermore, because the present structures of adult education and training in a country are the result of a longer socio-historical process (and therefore sometimes completely different) they make it more difficult to find equivalent concepts in the source and target language.

Finally, I must also mention the difficulty of translating the expressions used for institutions. On the one hand, some types of institutions cannot be found directly in other countries (e.g. *Folk High School* or „*Heimvolkhochschulen*"). Here equivalents from a functional point of view must be sought. On the other hand, the transfer of the expression used for similar institutions (e.g. „*Universidad popular*", „*Université populaire*" and „*Volkshochschule*") and organization forms (*Study circle* and *círculo de estudio*) comprises the danger of blurring differences between the institutions.

The problem of translation is a dual one in every way because it concerns two different systems of languages and concepts respectively. A further problem is that of a lack of conceptual clarity and the dynamism of the development of concepts in both countries. As a glance at the situation in Germany shows, there is firstly no complete terminological consensus in the field of continuing education in a national context, and there cannot be one due to the complexity of the subject. Secondly, the meanings of terms change in time, due to legislation, for example. These changes are especially true for countries in transition. Due to the countries' accelerated process of change a rapid differentiation of the technical terminology of adult education has taken place. This strong dynamism within a short period of time led to many new terms being included in the technical terminology but older ones were not replaced by them; one result is the co-existence of competing terms. The act of translating therefore requires knowledge of the terminology process in the source country. Without knowledge of the context, adequate technical translations are not possible.

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Implications for the Methodology of Translation

The examples given above show the size of the problems of translation and emphasize the importance of systematic work in the field of terminology. In my opinion, if knowledge is actually to be gained in the field of adult education, three requirements should be made of this work: **1.** embedding in the context, **2.** emphasis of differences and **3.** transfer work.

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The meanings of terms can often only be worked out when the terms are considered in context. Translations must therefore attempt to make the „location“ of terms easier. The knowledge of the context which is often needed in addition can be supplied by amplifications in the text (footnotes) or separately in appendices (glossaries).

If one checks the glossaries of the country-studies on France (Liebl 1991), Germany (Nuissl 1994) and Spain (Jütte 1992) published by the German Institute for Adult Education it becomes obvious that only limited aids to comprehension can be given in the appendix. A direct comparison of the explanation in the glossary of the French term *„Education populaire“*, the Spanish *„Educación popular“* and the German *Volksbildung* reveals the following entries:

Education populaire: „Traditional field of education outside school which has been strongly leisure-orientated since 1936. It is generally backed by associations".

Educación popular: „Stands mainly for the Latin American concept of adult education. The influence of P. Freire in the seventies was extremely important in Spain".

Volksbildung: „the term used for continuing education up to the end of the Second World War; refers particularly to the liberal bourgeois tradition of general education".

It appears that the necessary knowledge of the context can be given more effectively through explanations in the text or in footnotes. I would like to quote a note on the Italian term *„associazione"* by Apitzsch (1990, p. 85) as, in my opinion, a successful example :

„The word 'associazione' can perhaps be translated into German by the word 'Vereinigung' but really there is no German equivalent for it. It does not express what is meant by the German 'Vereinswesen', the privatistic following of particular leisure purposes, but the self-governed structuring of the central cultural needs of the majority of the population. The term which comes closest to 'associazionismo' is probably 'Assoziation' as Marx and Engels used it in their 'Deutschen Ideologie', where a 'community with others' is mentioned in which every individual has the means to 'develop his talents in all directions'".

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Here the methodological requirement that differences be emphasized is fulfilled. The „difference method" should become a decisive principle in work in the field of terminology: not common features but differences should be emphasized. With work in the field of terminology up to now there is an obvious danger that common features and similarities are stressed and that terms are standardized. This procedure does not seem appropriate for research in continuing education, because differences between concepts are rashly levelled out. For the sake of the precision of terms and above all to avoid drawing false analogies it is necessary to work contrastively.

This could require coining new words in one's own language which follow the original terms in order to avoid drawing false analogies. These new expressions also act as a signal to the reader by drawing attention to the dangers of pseudo understanding. In such a case the terms of the source language should be given when the new expression is introduced. Another way to avoid drawing false analogies is just to keep the original term untranslated (cf. Reischmann 1997).

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Another method could be called the „transfer method", when a further translation step is undertaken regarding the contents. This is an additional abstraction step by the author: functional equivalents are located in the respective cultural context and shown. As an example for this method I give the transfer of the distinction between formal, non-formal and informal adult education to the situation in Germany (cf. Knoll 1996, p. 6):

	formal adult education	**non-formal adult education**	**informal adult education**
Profiles	Qualification-orientated education, continuing education, further training, retraining	Non-vocational, (which is not qualification-orientated) socio-cultural education	Alternative, non-institutionalized adult education

Usually, though, after „linguistic" translation has taken place, readers will have to conduct this further „factual" translation step themselves.

Other significant transfer work can be done by quoting the results of supranational organisations or reconstructing debates carried out in other countries, for example when the American discussion on self-directed learning is summarized in Germany (Reischmann 1997).

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Requirements for Research in Adult Education

First of all, the issue of translation and terminology must be understood not just as a pragmatic but also as a methodological problem. As such it deserves greater attention.

Due to increased international, especially European, co-operation in education the importance of multilingual terminologies will increase, but at the same time the work done so far can be seen as insufficient. Therefore, research in adult education which is committed to internationality must see itself required to intensify this area.

A step in this direction is the increased acknowledgement of the work done by supranational organizations in the field of theories and terminologies for continuing education (UNESCO, Council of Europe, Commission of the European Community etc.). Adult education in some countries, like in Germany, often represents a „special case" in the international context as far as its terms are concerned. A certain national self-absorption is obvious. The theories and recommendations of international organisations are hardly ever recognized, although they often don't contradict the national ones. Here I don't mean taking on the results of work by supranational organisations initially, but acknowledging them. They could, therefore, take on the role of the *tertium comparationis* and thus promote international understanding.

To make it quite clear: I don't want to speak out in favour of a standardization of the technical terminology of continuing education. The tendency which can be detected for English to become the *Lingua franca* in the international context often makes technical communication easier but it doesn't solve the deeper problems of translation. Knowledge of the source language remains necessary for comparative studies. Competence in the subject cannot in this case be separated from linguistic competence.

An important pre-requisite for international specialist communication is the further development of one's own national system of terms. Drawing up a specialist dictionary of terms is an important desideratum of research. Here it is less important to establish a nomenclature of adult education than to continually strive to make central terms more precise.

The problems of translation and terminology should be taken into account in higher education, for example by promoting the reception of international discussions on theory, by encouraging the student to learn a foreign language and by carrying out field study trips to gain insight into adult education in other countries. Despite all the efforts of the work in the field of translation it cannot replace direct contact with adult educationalists in other countries. Mutual visits and research fill the terms with meaning, make the reality described in theoretical terms easier to grasp.

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INTERNATIONAL SOCIETIES

ISCAE – INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR COMPARATIVE ADULT EDUCATION

Jost Reischmann ■ Germany

The name of the society sounds impressive. And the fact that the society has a „President" (Jost Reischmann, University of Bamberg, Germany) and a „Secretary" (Marcie Boucouvalas, Virginia Tech/University of Virginia, USA) is nearly as impressive as the list of names, functions, and countries of the board members: Michal Bron Jr, University College of South Stockholm, Sweden, is responsible for conferences, Jindra Kulich, University of British Columbia, Canada, for bibliographies, Gretchen Bersch, University of Alaska, for communication, Raja Jayagopal, University of Madras, India, for co-ordination with the Asian Network on Comparative Education.

The reality, however, is much more modest. Today ISCAE could best be described as a network of about 120 persons in 30 countries. Once or twice a year a newsletter („ISCAE-Communication", until now 18 editions issued) is published. Members meet at international conferences where they anyway participate. There are no statutes, and no accounting or membership fees. Copying and mailing of ISCAE-Communication is divided into three from Germany, USA, and Australia and the respective university budgets. And depending of the vocational workload of the volunteers it sometimes growes quiet for a while around ISCAE.

Nevertheless: those who know the international scene of our subject and field will find many well-known names on the membership-list of ISCAE. The insiders will recognize many names from research works, publications, and conferences. Many colleagues who are working in the field of international and comparative adult education have been added for various reasons and occasions to the mailing list of ISCAE, thus becoming a „member". Perhaps this mailing list is beside the direct meetings, the most important treasure of ISCAE: It allows immediate access to persons, institutions, and information in many countries. Information about adult education in Alaska? No problem, send a fax to Gretchen Bersch, University of Alaska. A short visit to Ljubljana, Slovenia? Just call: Ana Krajnc or Zoran Jelenc will be glad to present their work. One of my students was recovering from examination stress in Australia. I gave her the address of Roger K. Morris: „Yesterday he invited me to attend his class“ she tells me on a postcard. So the terms „network“, „worldwide person-to-person contacts“, and „international research exchange“ may best characterize the work of ISCAE. And the term „beginnings“, because we can find in the development and status of ISCAE steps and processes that are typical for the origin of a society.

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The Beginnings of ISCAE

Similar to other adult education initiatives the name of one person symbolizes the beginning: Alexander N. Charters, professor and vice-president for continuing education, now Professor Emeritus at Syracuse University, New York, gave birth to the idea of this society and developed it over more than three decades. Later we will refer more to this founder of ISCAE. Here, first, are some activities which shall be reported of the development of this society.

1960: at the first world conference of the World Council for Comparative Education in Ottawa, Alexander N. Charters and Roby Kidd, a reputable Canadian scholar of adult education organized a working group and presented papers about international and comparative adult education.

1966: the legendary Exeter-conference took place in New Hampshire; the „Exeter-papers“ were published by the Syracuse University Publications in Continuing Education (SUPCE), and are still today an important historical document.

1970: Alexander N. Charters organized a series of meetings about comparative Adult Education at the World Council of Comparative and International Education in Montréal. He published the papers together with Beverly Cassara, University of the District of Columbia.

1992: Colin J. Titmus, Great Britain, expert in international and comparative adult education and author of leading publications in this field, chaired a working group of members of this society at the VIII World Council of Comparative Education Societies in Prague.

Until this year the society had been using the name „Committee for Study and Research in Comparative Adult Education (CSRCAE)". Alexander N. Charters, then more than 70 years old, urged the members to convey the responsibility for the society to younger scholars. At the 1992 annual conference of the American Association of Adult and Continuing Education in Anaheim, Los Angeles the above mentioned new president and secretary was elected. On the same occasion the society was renamed as the „International Society for Comparative Adult Education (ISCAE)".

The first conference initiated and organized by ISCAE took place in 1995 in Bamberg, Germany (M. Charters 1996). Altogether 31 members from 14 countries attended the conference. The central focus of this conference was the discussion of methods, problems and pitfalls of international comparative research. The second conference was held 1998 in Radovljica, Slovenia; it was attended by 35 members from 16 countries. The intention is to plan conferences every two to three years, in different countries and continents. There are different types of papers that should be presented to this conference: Scholarship, as we know, is an incremental process. Articles which appear in journals or books are the end product of a long process. At conferences, the papers delivered as usually ones which focus on findings once research is already completed or nearing completion. This type of presentation, in which research is fairly complete, is welcome to the ISCAE-conferences. In order to expand the scope – in addition to completed research – research in progress is also welcome, as well as research-ideas that provide feedback and critique, and scholarly think-pieces to stimulate dialogue. But presentations have to be „internationally comparative", meaning that two or more countries are included in the research.

This short description reveals quite typical elements of the emergence of an organization. At the beginning we find the interests of individuals. Conferences and other meetings then prove to be – in the beginning often more or less by chance – a concentration place for sharing such individual interests, leading to contacts and the awareness of common interests. Then it is important that the engaged persons focus on and become identified with these topics: as a person („N ... is present at all related meetings"), by his/her topics („N ... always presents within the same topic field"), and in offering an organized form (i.e. a journal, a yearbook, or by founding a society).

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The Founder: Alexander N. Charters, Syracuse, USA

„Alexander N. Charters has been in the forefront of international adult education for many years": this is the estimate of the editor of the reputable „International Perspectives on Adult and Continuing Education"-series of Routledge-Publisher, Peter Jarvis (1989). „Alex N. Charters' contribution to the field of adult education amply deserve to become part of its global history", was the appraisal of Siddiqui at the International Conference on the History of Adult Education 1996 in Jena, Germany (In: Friedenthal-Haase 1998).

Alexander N. Charters started his practical work in the 1930s, following a family tradition. His aunt Jessie was the first female in the West of the USA to receive a Ph.D., and offered the first graduate program in Adult Education at Ohio State University. Charters' significant work in international comparative adult education was developed at Syracuse University, New York. Beginning as assistant-Dean of University College in 1948, he rose through the ranks to become Dean in 1952 and vice president for continuing education in 1964 – the first Vice President for Adult Education in an American university. He retired in 1983, but has remained active in University life and the field of adult and continuing education. He served in substantial positions at this university, participated actively at all important seminars, meetings, and conferences; he knows, and is known by, all key-persons in the field, has supplied grants for more than a million dollars to his university, and traveled to more than 40 countries to exchange his expertise in adult education. He also deals perfectly with all the acronyms which are even to the experts not always understandable: NUEA (National University of the Education of Adults), CAEO (Coalition of Adult Education Organizations), ICUAE (International Congress of University Adult Education) or CREA (Clearinghouse of Resources for Educators of Adults).

During his tenure at Syracuse University, Alex Charters helped to establish what is today one of the largest compilations of English-language materials in the field of adult and continuing education. The collections occupy 900 feet of shelf space and contain more than fifty groups of personal papers and organization records, print- and non-print material (audio- and video-tapes, hundreds of photos) that document the history and development of adult education: for example, records from the Adult Education Association from 1924 on, Malcolm Knowles' Papers from 1930 on, and even ISCAE-files are collected there. To honor the efforts of Alexander N. Charters and his wife Margaret, the collections were renamed in October 1998 as the Alexander N. Charters Library of Resources for Educators of Adults.

If one asks for the characteristics of such a founder-personality, what always comes to mind are his humility, hospitality, and his open approach to more and less important persons. I can imagine his amused-doubting smile when reading these lines: „Had you nothing more important to write about?" These characteristics open doors, especially in the international context. And this may be one of the most rewarding aspects of working internationally: that most people in this field are easy to deal with, and enriching by their fantasy.

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The Meaning of the „International Comparative"

There exist many international organizations in adult education (field of practice) and andragogy (scientific approach), and national associations also have task forces or divisions to deal with international topics. For example, the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education has an „International Task Force". What are the specifics of ISCAE?

The title of the society describes the specifics with which ISCAE wants to deal: with International Comparative Adult Education. But this does not finally clarify the specifics, because „international comparative" is a denomination that can be interpreted either broadly or narrowly.

Knowledge about the education of adults in other countries can be gained from various sources:

The first source, mostly evaluated as „pre-scientific", comprises „travelers tales", the reports we get from international travelers. Such reports are mainly delivered by traveling writers or vacationists, but also by scholars who attend a conference abroad and have to report to their funding agency – and publish this report at the same time in a journal. If these descriptions are more systematic, they are labeled *„travelers reports"*, or – if they are less systematic, *„travelers tales"*.

These types of international documents are mostly characterized as „subjective-impressionistic". Their value is evaluated as ambivalent: Critically it is argued that, because of the random observation and the subjective description, it is not clear how reliable and how representative the descriptions are. On the other hand the plea is made that especially in this subjective focus of eye-witnesses there might be strength from these type of reports. In the framework of a new appreciation of qualitative research these reports may get a new interest.

At the scientific level, five different types of international-comparative research are identified:

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During the 1970s and 1980s mainly *country-reports* were presented. „Adult Education in the Republic of ..." is a typical title of this type of report. These papers tried to describe the system of adult and continuing education in one particular country. They could be written by an author of this country or by a person from outside. Some of these reports were, and are, rather impressionistic. Others followed a well developed outline and structure.

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During and after the 1980s we find an increasing number of *program-reports*. These describe foreign adult education programs, institutions, and organizations. Examples of this type can be found in the publications of Charters, Hilton (1989) or the case studies collected by Knox (1989) (see the description in Reischmann in this volume). Included in this type (sometimes presented in a separate category) are *the topic-oriented studies or the problem approach*: a certain topic or problem is discussed in the context of a nation.

Country reports as well as topic-oriented studies and the problem-approach focus more on the „international" less on the „comparative". Because only one country or program is presented, no comparable object is available. Especially when an author presents his own country or program it is difficult to refer to another national system. If, for example, a German author describes a German program for a publication in English, should parallels be drawn to the English, Scottish, US-American, Canadian or Australian systems? If country-reports or program-reports are collected in a reader or textbook, the readers have to draw the comparative conclusions themselves.

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A third type is *juxtaposition*. Data from two or more countries are presented. These reports show: In country A we can observe a, in country B we find b. A series of statistical reports represent this type. But no explicit comparison is given: where are the similarities, what are the differences? An example of this type in Germany is the international volume of the Handbuch der Erwachsenenbildung (Handbook of Adult Education 1978), edited by Franz Pöggeler, or Peter Jarvis' „Perspectives on Adult Education and Training in Europe" (1992). This juxtaposition can also be topic-oriented when a topic is presented in a series of contributions from various countries: In Pöggeler's „The State and Adult Education" a series of articles deal with the role of the state in individual countries.

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The *comparison* goes one step further: It reports from two or more countries, and an explicit comparison is offered which attempts to make the similarities and differences understandable. ISCAE uses here mostly the definition of its founding father: „A study in comparative international adult education ... must include one or more aspects of adult education in two or more countries or regions. Comparative study is not the mere placing side by side of data ... such juxtaposition is only the prerequisite for comparison. At the next stage one attempts to identify the similarities and differences between the aspects under study ... The real value of comparative study emerges only from ... the attempt to understand why the differences and similarities occur and what their significance is for adult education in the countries under examination ..." (Charters, Hilton 1989, p. 3). This for example can be found in the final chapter of Charters and Hilton (1989).

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Finally *field- and method-reflections* are seen as part of international comparative adult education: reflections about the methods, strategies, and concepts of international comparison, and summarizing reports about developments in the international comparative field on a material or meta level.

ISCAE tries to promote a narrow focus of its specific task: The focus of ISCAE is on type 4 and 5 (comparison and field-/ method-reflections). ISCAE tries to develop, support, and share standards of the methodology of international comparison that might help researchers towards a better understanding of comparison and more sound, reliable, and economic ways of comparing internationally. That means that ISCAE especially invites those researchers that are interested in doing comparative work: researching one or more aspects of adult education in two or more countries.

There are many other national and international organizations where reports of interesting travels, „Adult Education in the Republic of X" or „The Interesting Program or Idea Y in Country Z", can be presented – this should not be a topic at ISCAE-meetings. But the „should" and „tries" indicates that the reality sometimes is different. The problem of how to define and interpret the term „international comparative" showed up at both ISCAE-conferences. Although the above definition of comparison was cited in the „Call for Papers" country- and program reports were presented as well. Should we reject the papers of colleagues who traveled half way around the world and needed an accepted paper to get funding for attending the conference? That is also something which can be learned in the international field: to avoid seeing things too narrowly.

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A Difficult Chapter: International Research and Volunteering in an International Society

It certainly is challenging to get a wider view of our world through an international orientation. But there are many handicaps that make this work difficult. Just to name three of them:

A first handicap is language: international communication takes place in English. For the majority of the world this is a foreign language. Communicating, even more, publishing in this foreign language takes many times more effort than doing research in the native context. In oral discussions the native English speakers are always faster; when writing the secretaries are often not trained in writing English. For publication always a native speaker has to be found for proof-reading. Institutions, laws, political or cultural background are often so different that it is very difficult to find an appropriate translation. The English literature often is not available, and it makes no sense to refer to the knowledge and experience of non-English research literature, because it does not exist for the international readership. That means that people from non-English countries lose their whole theory, methodology, and content research background when working in the international context.

Another handicap is the reliable presence at central international meetings. Person-to-person-contacts are absolutely necessary in this field. To enter this field and to stay in its network is nearly impossible without traveling and being visible. This means a high investment of time, energy and money. And this investment has to be made also in times when no comparative project is carried out and no extra project money is available. This makes it difficult especially for young scholars to come into the field of international comparative adult education or to stay in it when a comparative project is finished.

Of course international comparative projects have much higher costs and a lot more problems than research done in one country (see the vivid description in the contribution of Blais in this volume). A foreign partner has to be found and has to be convinced to join a project. Many details have to be clarified before and during the research process and at the end for the publication, needing continuing exchange. In most cases one partner has an extra load of translation, when the other partner does not speak his language. It is difficult to find foundations that are willing to support international projects. National foundations are often not interested in paying the costs of the foreign partner. Even when one researcher is able to travel to two or more countries and thus avoids the handicap of co-authorship comparative research means a high money-, time-, and effort-investment. Regarding the outcome of these investments, for the career of a scholar it is often more beneficial to work at the national level. Funding and supporting agencies should do more not only to assist international comparative research projects but also to encourage the possibility of bringing young scholars into this field. Also, ways should be found to support volunteering in international societies.

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Perspectives

International-comparative adult education is justified on the grounds of two central arguments (for a more differentiated portrayal see Knoll in this volume): On a practical level „borrowing" is expected – that we learn from foreign experiences to adapt successful experiences – for our own practical work and to avoid mistakes. On a theoretical level it is expected that the international-comparative perspective helps to overcome ethnocentric blindness – that we learn, irritated by observations in a foreign context, to better perceive and understand our own field and system.

Certainly cultural differences limit the transfer from one country to another. Comparative research – by helping to understand the differences/similarities and their significance for adult education – clarifies the possibilities and limits of understanding and borrowing. Both are indispensable in a world where in many countries experiences in the various fields of adult education are gained and needed.

The technical development in very few years has definitely made international communication much easier: Fax, and even more, E-mail have speeded up this exchange significantly. While for the 1995 ISCAE-conference E-mail could be used in perhaps 10 percent of the exchanges this increased to more than 80 percent at the 1998 conference. This book in hand with editors in three countries could only be prepared in the given time with E-mail. But technology is only one part of international exchange. ISCAE offers a person at the other end of the telephone- or E-mail-line. And it offers a chance not only to maintain virtual contact but also to have face-to-face-contact. ISCAE wants to serve international comparison ■ by supplying a network of contacts to other comparatists, ■ by fostering exchange through conferences, and ■ by documenting and sharing the developments and standards in publications.

Persons interested in international comparative adult education are invited to join ISCAE.

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ESREA - EUROPEAN SOCIETY FOR RESEARCH ON THE EDUCATION OF ADULTS

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The establishment in December 1991 of the European Society for Research on the Education of Adults – ESREA – created a potential basis for the development of a European forum for research on the education of adults. This was a significant initiative, given that the organization of adult continuing education and the learning activities of adults are increasingly regarded as important features of economic and social policy on the European stage and in the member states of the European Union. On the one hand, a great deal of attention is devoted to the potential contribution of vocational training and continuing education, including learning in the work-place, and to the human resource development which is intended to enhance the competitive position of the European economies in world markets. On the other hand, much is also expected of the learning undertaken by adults in the resolution of major social problems such as racism, the struggle against social exclusion and the (re-) construction of civil society. Lifelong learning in the learning/information/knowledge society have now become key items on the policy agenda throughout Europe.

The creation of ESREA was opportune, furthermore in that research on the education of adults was undergoing rapid and significant change throughout Europe. These changes exert profound influences which find expression, on the one hand, in major organizational and financial reform of university-based research, and, on the other hand, in fundamental processes of theoretical and methodological reorientation. Efforts to promote co-operation between universities in different countries will have to address these developments, and they constitute a base-line for the strategy adopted by ESREA.

ESREA is intended to encourage researchers to co-operate in the development of rigorous research on the education of adults. The initiative was the result of informal discussions between academics and researchers at a variety of encounters during the late 1980s. A sounding of opinion in the course of 1991 indicated a basis of potential support for a European organization devoted to university-based research on adult education and learning. The first meeting of a provisional steering committee was held in December 1991, and those present agreed to establish ESREA as a scientific society which is a private association. This initiative was well received and has found supporters throughout Europe. At the present time, ESREA has more than two hundred individual and associate institutional members from Estonia to Turkey, Eire to the Commonwealth of Independent States, and all countries in between. The Steering Committee of ESREA is elected by the paid-up members of the society. It has 12 elected members and 4 ad hoc members chosen by the Steering Committee. Annual meetings of this committee have been held in Leiden, Manchester, Sevilla, Vienna, Strobl, Bremen, Roskilde and Bruxelles. Elections take place every three years. The ESREA secretariat is currently based at the Centre for Learning and Communication in Organizations at Leiden University. Since 1991, ESREA has developed a range of activities which seek to facilitate closer and more effective co-operation between researchers throughout Europe.

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ESREA European Research Networks

At the first meeting of the ESREA steering committee, in December 1991, it was decided that the major priority of ESREA would be the establishment of specialist *European research networks*. For example, in the area of life history and biographical research applied to the education of adults, we identified four active but distinct networks within Europe which knew little or nothing about each other's research. ESREA decided, therefore, to establish European research networks which would **a)** link researchers with common interests in specific areas of research, **b)** hold regular European research seminars, **c)** encourage joint publication of research, and **d)** contribute to the training of young researchers.

ESREA has successfully established a number of European research networks. Each of these networks has developed a programme of activities which include the organization of regular European research seminars, co-operative research and publications. These networks, with an indication of meetings already held, are concerned with: ■ life history and biographical research (Geneva and Vienna); ■ access for adult students to higher education (St. Andrews, Manchester, Louvain, Warwick); ■ cross-cultural influences in the history of European adult education (Leiden, York, Strobl, Salamanca, and Frankfurt); ■ active democratic citizenship (Wroclaw, Strobl); ■ migration, ethnicity, racism and xenophobia (Strobl, Frankfurt, Vienna); ■ adult education and the labour market (Ljubljana, Strobl, Leeds, Dubrovnik); ■ continuing professional development (Manchester, Sheffield, Bruxelles, Vienna, Leiden), and ■ older learners (Strobl, Budapest).

A new research network on gender issues in adult education will meet for the first time in 1999. These research network seminars attract considerable interest, and more than 350 researchers participate in the various seminars held each year. The first publications of seminar papers appeared during 1995.

ESREA welcomes suggestions for new research networks from both individual members and active groups of researchers who wish to extend their activities at a European level. A list of ESREA European research networks can be found at the end of this article (pp. 299-300).

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European Research Meetings and Conferences

In addition to these regular European research seminars, ESREA also organizes European research meetings and conferences. The research meetings address themes which link the activities of the more specific ESREA research networks. The first such European meeting was held at the University of Sevilla, December 1992, when the First European Conference on Adult Education, Social Movements and the Universities took place. A second ESREA research meeting was held in Sweden, 1993, at Folk High School Valla in Linköping, and was devoted to *Popular Adult Education and the Mobilization of Social Participation in Europe*. Further research meetings have been held at Lahti in Finland, and Strobl in Austria. It is the intention of ESREA to encourage colleagues from the Baltic, Central and Eastern European countries to attend these meetings. To this end, ESREA seeks to locate these European research meetings in these countries. At a first meeting of representatives from these countries, held in Ljubljana, March 1995, it was decided to establish a special ESREA Regional Network for these countries, which will be co-ordinated by the Slovene Adult Education Centre in Ljubljana. Further meetings have been held at Tallinn in Estonia and Ljubljana.

ESREA also organizes a triennial general European research conference. The first of these conferences took place 18-22 September 1995 at the Bundesinstitut für Erwachsenenbildung, in Strobl, Austria. This general research conference brought together 100 ESREA members who reported on their ongoing research on the theme of *Adult Learning and Social Participation*. The second European research conference was held 17-20 September, 1998, at the Bruxelles campus of the Catholic University of Louvain-la-Neuve. The theme of this conference was *Learning to Live in the Learning Society*, and it was attended by more than 130 participants. ESREA plans to hold its next European research conference in 2001 at a location in southern Europe.

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ESREA Research Projects

ESREA members have initiated a number of collaborative research projects in recent years. In 1992, ESREA launched a major co-operative study entitled the *„State of the Art" Study of Research on the Education of Adults in the European Countries*. The study is intended to provide a detailed analysis of the developments and trends which characterize university-based research on adult and continuing education throughout Europe. In all the European countries, this project investigated the following: 1) organization and funding of university-based research; 2) disciplinary and interdisciplinary nature of research; 3) contribution of fundamental and applied research to the knowledge base; 4) training and continuing professional development for researchers; 5) participation in European research activities; and 6) analysis of developments and trends.

During 1992-1994 authors from each country prepared national reports on current developments and trends. On the basis of these national reports, two integrative reports have been prepared, one for the Western European countries and one for the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. In close co-operation with the UNESCO Institute in Hamburg, the results of this phase comprised the European contribution to UNESCO's world-wide survey of research on adult education. The two integrative reports by ESREA were presented at the UNESCO international expert seminar held in Montréal, September 1994. The two European reports have been published by the German adult education association in its journal *Education and Development,* and the final reports have been published by the UNESCO Institute of Education, Hamburg, in 1998. The country studies for the Baltic, Central and Eastern European countries were published by the Slovene Adult Education Centre.

ESREA members have used the ESREA research networks to develop collaborative research projects and to successfully submit these for European Union funding. Within the Targeted Socio-Economic Research programme of Framework IV, successful projects have included research on older workers, access to higher education, and organizational learning. A number of ESREA-initiated projects have been approved within the Adult Education funding line within the SOCRATES and LEONARDO programmes. The new Framework V research programme starts during 1999, while the revised SOCRATES and LEONARDO programs come on stream in 2000. This indicates the need for accurate and up-to-date information for ESREA members who wish to co-operate with others in European projects. To this end ESREA held a research meeting in Austria in September 1998 for those members with a special interest in research on higher education and lifelong learning.

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Co-operation with National and European Organizations

In a number of European countries, there are well-established scientific associations or societies, which bring together those involved in research on adult and continuing education in a national forum. These include the Kommission Erwachsenenbildung of the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Erziehungswissenschaft (DGfE), the Universities Association for Continuing Education (UACE) and the Standing Conference for University Teaching and Research on the Education of Adults (SCUTREA) in the United Kingdom, the Society for Educational Research in Portugal, and GRUPO 90 in Spain. In many of the Baltic, Central and Eastern European countries, efforts are now underway to reconstruct the national forms of co-operation among researchers concerned with the education of adults. ESREA co-operates with these national organizations in holding joint meetings.

A good example of joint activities with national associations was the *First European Conference on Adult Educational Research, Social Movements and the Universities* which took place in Sevilla, 10-11 December 1992. This conference was jointly organized by ESREA and the Spanish association GRUPO 90, together with the European Association on the Education of Adults (EAEA). During this conference, invited experts from Andalusia, other areas of Spain and the countries of the European Community, all of them members of ESREA, ran eight workshops for 160 Andalusian adult educators. The Department of Education at the University of Sevilla hosted this meeting. In March 1994, ESREA and the Kommission Erwachsenenbildung of the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Erziehungswissenschaft (DGfE) jointly organized a symposium during the biennial conference of the DGfE at the University of Dortmund. Similar ESREA events have been organized in co-operation with UACE at its annual conferences in Manchester, 1992, and Swansea, 1995, and this was repeated in 1996 at Leeds. In July 1997, ESREA co-operated with SCUTREA and the North American research associations in the organization of a major international meeting in London. ESREA will co-operate in the organization of the Adult Education Research Conference in Canada in 2000.

ESREA also endeavours to work closely with other European organizations in the area of adult education, such as the European Association on the Education of Adults (EAEA), the European Association of Research and Development Institutes (EARDI), the European Universities Continuing Network (EUCEN), the European Lifelong Initiative (ELLI), together with governmental organizations such as UNESCO, the Council of Europe, and the Organization for Economic Co-operation in Development (OECD).

ESREA has become increasingly involved in the regular meetings organized by the member states of the European Union during their presidency of the European Council of Ministers. This was the case in 1998 at the Manchester meeting, Vienna in the second half of 1998, Germany in early 1999, and ESREA is to be closely involved in the Finnish meetings in late 1999.

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ESREA Publications

One of the major objectives of ESREA is to encourage the publication and distribution of high quality reports of research on the education of adults in European countries. There is a real need, for example, for a European journal which publishes significant contributions to theory and empirical research on the education of adults. ESREA has negotiated an agreement with the publishers of *Studies in the Education of Adults*, the National Institute for Adult Continuing Education (England and Wales), to join the consortium of university organizations on whose behalf this journal is published. *Studies in the Education of Adults* is a leading international refereed journal which publishes historical, theoretical and empirical studies from all sectors of post-initial education and training. The editorial board of *Studies* welcomes the submission of papers from researchers throughout Europe.

Another new publishing venture involves the agreed co-operation between ESREA and the editorial board of the new *European Handbook for Continuing Education*, which is published by Luchterhand Verlag.

A major publishing venture involves the publication of edited volumes of selected papers which have been presented to the seminars of the ESREA European research networks, together with the proceedings of the ESREA European research conferences. These are now being produced under the ESREA imprint by various publishers. ESREA is now negotiating with commercial publishers for the publication of an ESREA series.

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ESREA Information Services

As a service to its members, ESREA has published ESREA NEWS annually. This is the regular newsletter of the society, which contains information about ESREA activities, the ESREA research networks, other related European activities, such as the SOCRATES/ERASMUS programme for adult and continuing education, and TEMPUS activities, and a list of conferences to be held in Europe. ESREA News will become an on-line virtual newsletter in 1999.

ESREA also makes use of the new possibilities offered by the new information technologies available through the Internet. In co-operation with the University of Helsinki, an ESREA list-server has been established which allows the ESREA Secretariat and ESREA members to communicate in order to exchange information. This can include **a)** the announcement of research conferences, seminars and workshops; **b)** new publications, and **c)** calls for partners in co-operative research. Also in co-operation with the University of Helsinki, ESREA has created a website on the Internet. This provides on-line information about ESREA activities, but also provides members with links to other websites which are of interest to ESREA members. Of particular importance here are links to up-to-date information about European Union programmes which provide financial support for research projects. Members are invited to make suggestions for the inclusion of websites in the ESREA links.

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Training of Researchers

ESREA has used its links with the national organizations in order to facilitate European co-operation in supporting the continuing professional education of researchers and the training of a new generation of researchers. As a general rule, ESREA endeavours to encourage a small number of post-graduate research students to attend the European research seminars, conferences and meetings. This practice makes it possible for young researchers to discuss their research with experienced colleagues and to learn from them, and to meet other young researchers working in related areas of research. Also to this end, ESREA has co-operated actively with the SOCRATES/ERASMUS programme *Studies in European Adult Education*, which facilitates the mobility of students and staff between more than 20 universities and which holds an annual Ph.D seminar.

Such endeavours are of particular importance for the Baltic, Central and Eastern European countries. A major reorientation of university-based research in these countries must struggle on two fronts against, on the one hand, the capacity of representatives of the „old order" to secure their positions in the „new order", and, on the other hand, a disastrous financial position at the universities. Taken together, such problems inhibit the recruitment of a new generation of researchers and the development of a research potential in the area of adult and continuing education. Against this background, it is necessary within the context of ESREA to encourage more co-operation in the post-graduate training of young researchers, to enhance the mobility of researchers throughout Europe, and to transfer research knowledge and skills in support of our younger colleagues in the Baltic, Eastern and Central European countries.

ESREA can be found on the Internet at: *www.helsinki.fi/jarj/esrea*

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ESREA organizes its activities on the basis of European research networks. These networks organize annual seminars. In 1996 more than 350 ESREA members and other researchers participated in these seminars, which brought together active researchers from all parts of Europe.

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CONFINTEA V: A UNESCO-LED CONFERENCE OF ADULT LEARNING IN THE PERSPECTIVE OF LIFELONG LEARNING

Paul Bélanger ■ UNESCO

Fifth International Conference on Adult Education, Hamburg, 14 – 18 July 1997

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Historical Context

UNESCO has, since its inception, shown serious interest in adult education. The General Conference, at its Second and Third Sessions held in Mexico City (1947) and Beirut (1948), decided to call an international conference devoted to the problems of adult education. This special conference was held in Elsinore in Denmark (1949). It was followed by three other conferences at intervals of eleven, twelve and thirteen years in Montréal (1960), Tokyo (1972) and Paris (1985).

REVIEW OF THE PREVIOUS FOUR INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES ON ADULT EDUCATION

The Elsinore Conference (1949)

The First Conference, which came soon after the second world war, was marked by an awareness of the urgency of the task of reconstruction and by an awareness of the moral need to re-establish peace in the world. The following extract from the summary report of the conference indicates the major tasks assigned to adult education by the Conference:

„...to aid and foster movements which aim at creating a common culture to end the opposition between the so-called élite; to stimulate a genuine spirit of democracy and a genuine spirit of tolerance; to give youth the hope and confidence in life, that have been shaken by the present world disorganisation; to restore the sense of community to people who live in an age of specialization and isolation; to cultivate an enlightened sense of belonging to a world community".

The Conference issued a series of recommendations to promote international co-operation. The recommendations were prefaced by a declaration of principle stating the objectives of adult education at the international level.

The Conference was attended by *79 delegates and observers from 25 countries; more than 80 % belonged to industrialized countries.* Neither the USSR nor any of the countries of Eastern or Central Europe were present. Only ten delegates from Asia, Africa, Latin America and the Arab States attended.

The Montréal Conference (1960)

The Second Conference was held in Montréal (Canada) in 1960. It was attended by *225 delegates from 51 countries: Asia, Africa, Latin America, the Arab States, Eastern Europe and North America.*

Influenced by the great changes that had occurred during the preceding decade, particularly in the field of science and technology, the Montréal Conference *stressed the need to give absolute priority in adult education to the elimination of illiteracy and to undertake international action to assist those countries that lacked sufficient resources to deal with that problem.* It highlighted the link between the maintenance of peace and adult education, recommending the inclusion of reflection both on aesthetic and moral values and on the role of science and technology in social progress and stressing the importance of creative activities, the need for gender equality, for linking adult education with youth education and for support to NGOs.

Adult education at the Montréal Conference emerged as an essential component of any nation's policy for coping with the pressures of change and improving the quality of life. It was also recognized as a normal and necessary part of the overall educational provision of every country, within which its particular role was *to improve opportunities of access to education offered by the school system or to raise the level of knowledge already acquired within the context of lifelong learning*. It also recognized the major role of NGOs in adult education.

The Tokyo Conference (1972)

The Third Conference was held in Tokyo (Japan) in 1972. It was more embracing in its composition, bringing together 85 delegations (including 82 Member States) from Asia, Africa, the Arab States, Latin America and the Caribbean, as well as Europe and North America. The developing countries constituted a majority of the 400 delegates.

Aware of the tremendous changes that had occurred world-wide during the 1960s on all fronts (science and technology), the environment, the newly independent states, the cold war, etc.), the Conference reconfirmed the priority given by the Montréal Conference to the struggle against illiteracy. It also drew attention to the need to concentrate efforts on satisfying the specific needs of women and of the most underprivileged population groups.

Held at the time of the publication of the Fauré Commission report, the Tokyo Conference clearly indicated its interest in the paths that should be followed in order to develop policies and programmes for adult education within the framework of nation education systems and to make a more effective contribution to the development of lifelong education. It emphasized the complementary roles of formal and non-formal education, the need to link them more closely and the need for increased co-operation between governmental and non-governmental organizations. For the first time, the role of adult education as a factor in the democratization of education, economic and social progress and cultural development was analyzed by the participants.

As a consequence of the Tokyo Conference, the General Conference of UNESCO at its 19th Session (Nairobi 1976) adopted the *Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education* which was truly a turning point in UNESCO's commitment to adult education in the modern world. It summarized the major trends since 1949 and defined the principles, objectives, guidelines and policies that should govern the future development of adult education and the measures that Member States are required to take at the national, regional and international levels in order to implement the Recommendation.

The Paris Conference (1985)

The Fourth Conference was held in Paris at UNESCO Headquarters (1985). The Conference examined the evolution of adult education since 1972, the contribution that adult education could make to help people face the major world challenges, the needed priorities in terms of activities and the required forms of international and regional co-operation.

Participation was even more embracing than in Tokyo. The total number of participants was 841, including 40 ministers or persons of ministerial rank from 122 countries plus NGOs and two UN agencies. The Conference discussed the role of adult education as a means for social and occupational stability, its role in the democratization of education and in the consolidation of peace, the principles of freedom, justice and international co-operation.

The Conference took note of the changes that had taken place in the world since the Tokyo Conference including the 1976 Recommendation on Adult Education. The Conference considered the elimination of illiteracy as the first priority for adult education and it stressed the need for sustaining the literacy gains through varied efforts to promote post-literacy training.

The Conference assigned to *adult education the role of helping to make lifelong education available to all.* It reiterated the stand of previous conferences on the need for ensuring equal opportunities for women and disadvantaged groups. On the question of the link between formal and non-formal education, the Conference considered it important to apply the concept of lifelong learning as an overall governing concept in education because of the varied forms of learning, and because the learning process may involve the alternation of both of these forms of education.

It was recognized that the mass media are exerting a decisive impact on the extension and improvement of adult education through distance learning; specific emphasis was put on the role of low-cost community radio and TV, mobile low-power transmission units, rural cinema and rural theatre to be exploited as significant media for adult education. Regional and international co-operation was considered by the Conference to be crucial for the future development of adult education. The role of NGOs was considered indispensable for creating an effective grassroot adult education movement. In addition, the Paris Conference issued a strong declaration on the „right to learn“.

COMMON ISSUES

During these 45 years, each of the four Conferences reflected the concerns and the specific trends in the world over the preceding decade. They addressed the following issues as high priorities for adult education, to: ■ eliminate illiteracy ■ establish peace and international co-operation ■ create a genuine spirit of democracy ■ increase learning opportunities for all age groups ■ promote gender equality.

In the 1960s, with the accelerated decolonization, new priority issues were included, such as: ■ international co-operation to assist developing countries ■ involvement of NGOs ■ reflections on aesthetic and moral values and the role of science and technology in social progress ■ relating adult education with initial education.

During the 1970s, emphasis was put on the quality and the accessibility of adult education. The concept of lifelong learning became a central issue, coupled with the concern for some of the major world challenges such as population growth, the environment, occupational and vocational training and the role of the media in adult education.

In continuation of these trends, the last Conference in 1985 underlined key issues such as: ■ the intensification of the struggle against illiteracy under a renewed alliance between government and non-governmental institutions ■ the high priority that should be accorded to women's education ■ the linking of formal and non-formal education, within the perspective of lifelong learning ■ the decisive impact of the modern media on learning ■ the need for creativity and innovation in adult education ■ the concern for functional illiteracy in the industrialized countries.

Since then, the demand for adult and continuing education has been rapidly expanding, and the diversification of educational responses has clearly evolved. Yet, the inequality of learning opportunities remains as a serious constraint for a satisfactory matching of the demand, and will pose as a focal point of future action. It is a threefold attention to be paid to this problem: access to learning opportunities at all levels, adult and continuing education programmes/projects of a high quality, and modalities of fair participation in education and training programmes.

Today, the increasing variety of adult learning opportunities and the multidimensional character of the issues, as much as the multiplicity of actors involved, have not only generated the necessity to summon the Fifth Conference, but also to enlarge its concept in order to involve the various stakeholders in its preparation and organization and in the implementation of the conclusions.

Indeed, as stemming from these trends, it is not possible to hold an International Conference on Adult Learning without the involvement of other UN specialized agencies and multi-lateral organizations and without largely representative regional preparatory meetings, as it is not feasible anymore to convene a national conference on adult education without the participation of the different ministries and non-government organizations, and without the involvement of local communities. Adult learning has become an integral part of the strategies of the preventive health policies at WHO, of population policies, of environmental world programmes, of economic development plans in all UN agencies: ILO, FAO, UNDP, UNFPA, UNEP, UNICEF, UNIFEM, the World Bank, not to mention similar trends in the European Union and in multilateral organizations like OECD, the Council of Europe, the Commonwealth Secretariat, the ACCT, etc.

The Fifth Conference on Adult Education has to be situated in the context of the ongoing long-term United Nations initiatives: the Jomtien Declarations on Education For All and the Framework of Action (1990), the UNESCO World Decade of Cultural Development (1988-1997), the UNDP World Development Decade (1991-2000), the Cairo International Conference on Population (1994), the Social Development Summit (1995), the Beijing International Conference on Women (1995), and the International Commission on Education for the 21st Century (Report published in 1996).

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Objectives of CONFINTEA V

GENERAL OBJECTIVE

The general objective of the conference was to manifest the importance of adult learning and to forge a worldwide commitment to adult and continuing education in the perspective of lifelong learning aimed at (a) facilitating the participation of all to sustainable and equitable development, (b) promoting a culture of peace based on freedom, justice and mutual respect, and (c) enhancing the quality of life of women and men of all ages.

In this context, UNESCO and its partners have made an effort to ensure equal input and representation of all regions of the world and of all actors involved in the whole domain of adult learning.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

First, to review the development of education for out-of-school youth and adults and of continuing education since the last International Conference on Adult Education (Paris 1985), including the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien 1990), in order to identify the achievements and obstacles as well as the changing patterns.

Second, to identify the contribution that adult and continuing education could make to help people face some of the major world challenges such as: poverty, malnutrition and disease, unemployment and the need for retraining, ethnic conflict and political confrontation, environment exploitation and population growth.

Third, to exchange experience on how to enhance the quality of adult and continuing education programmes with regard to content, delivery, organization, training of the personnel and evaluation, and to prepare strategies to improve the conditions of adult learning and of accessibility.

Fourth, to recommend future policy and priorities for adult and continuing education within the context of lifelong learning focusing on favourable conditions for all people to steadily improve their competencies, to equally contribute to the socio-economic and cultural development of their societies and to fully participate in the decision-making processes of their states and communities.

Fifth, to explore and suggest the most effective modalities for local, national, regional and international co-operation in the field of adult literacy, adult and continuing education and further training, in the light of accumulated international experience since the 1985 Conference on Adult Education including the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien 1990).

Sixth, to provide, overall, a forum for reflection and discussion that mirrors the culture of adult learning and participatory development which the Conference wishes to promote.

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Theme

The focus of this Conference was „Adult Learning in the Perspective of Lifelong Education". This general theme is covered under the four dimensions, which constitute the motto of the Fifth International Conference:

Adult Learning: a Right and a Joy, a Task and a Tool?

A Right: According to article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights proclaimed by the United Nations on 10 December 1948, everyone has the right to education. The right to learn has obtained universal legitimacy by human consent as an indispensable key to, though not a sufficient condition for, individual autonomy, socio-economic stewardship, and responsible citizenship: it is the „conditio humana" for meeting the challenges of the world, as well as for full participation in equitable development.

A Joy: Adult learning is also experienced in human life as a joy, as a manifestation of the quality of life, of freedom and self-fulfilment. It is an opportunity to resist uniformity and to stimulate intellectual curiosity: it generates a feeling of gratification, of self-exploration and a continuous striving for discovery.

A Task: Participation together with education is not only a right but also a responsibility for all. Indeed, according to article 29 of the UN Declaration of Human Rights, everyone „has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his (or her) personality is possible". The community depends as much upon the participation of all its citizens as it secures the right and freedom to do so.

A Tool: Adult learning is more than an end in itself. It is a tool for personal as well as for social, economic and cultural development. Adult and continuing education have become an essential part of the strategies of local, national, regional and international agencies, of industry and business and of organizations within civil societies.

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The process of CONFINTEA and its Significance

The Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA V) took place in the Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg, Germany, from 14 to 18 July 1997. The Conference, although organized by UNESCO and in particular the UNESCO Institute for Education in Hamburg, mobilized the co-operation and support of a wide range of partners, including UN Organizations and Programmes, intergovernmental and non- governmental organizations and the private sector.

The Conference was attended by a total of 1507 participants including 41 Ministers, 18 Vice- and Deputy Ministers; 734 representatives (from 135 Member States, Associate Members, Non-Member States), 14 representatives of Organizations of the UN System, 21 representatives of Intergovernmental Organizations, 478 representatives of NGOs, 237 representatives of Foundations and Institutions, and 8 invited experts.

The success and the impact of the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education cannot be understood without taking into consideration the long and active process that has preceded and is now following this event. And at the outset of this operation, it was clear to many of us that without going beyond the recognized and institutionalized boundaries of adult education, we will not be able to apprehend the significant transition taking place on the educational national scenes in all regions of the world. Such a redefinition of the field was precisely one of the aims of the conference, relating adult education with the burning issues of the societies of today: gender equity, health promotion, the future of work, the crisis of food production, the alleviation of poverty, and sustainable development.

The challenge was to give opportunities to *de-* and *re-*construct the moving field of adult learning, which is made up of a series of educational activities undertaken under different names, through a multitude of providers, and organized under many ministries and thousands of civil society associations and private organizations.

This thematic enlargement of the field had two significant outcomes. It brought to the debate on adult learning new actors and agencies, e.g., the World Health Organization, minority rights groups and indigenous communities on the issue of cultural identities, and „special education“ networks, which were, until then, focused mainly on access of youth with disabilities for initial formal education. It had also the advantage of sensitizing the adult education community to a plurality of organized learning initiatives taking place outside their institutions, outside their ministries, outside their NGOs.

Such a conference on adult education was also not conceivable without the participation of the different partners: state authorities, educational institutions, trade unions, employers and civil society representatives. The development of so many „unrelated“ themes required a co-operative approach and a shared ownership. Until now, in each and all these conferences, the NGOs could only participate in parallel meetings where they had to contact governmental delegations that could then represent them and voice their concern in the official hall where the intergovernmental assembly was taking place. We were then confronted with a difficult question: how to respect the needed formal rules of procedure of an intergovernmental conference leading to a legitimate declaration and an authoritative plan of action, how to follow the due process and, at the same time, succeed in flexibilizing the procedure and create the climate needed for lively discussions and exchange of experiences? The Governing Board of UNESCO Institute for Education, responsible for the planning of the Conference, thought that the moment was ripe and that the adult education community was ready to go beyond and inaugurate, at the global level, a new partnership between civil society and governmental representatives.

The experience learned from the former international adult education conferences and from the different United Nations summits showed us that the hidden curriculum of a conference is as important as its overt programme and the official texts adopted. We could not develop a conference on the right to learn, and the joy of learning, without the active participation of citizens. We then attempted and, we hope, succeeded to create a climate and an environment carrying these orientations. The process itself of the Conference had to be an example of institutional andragogy.

What was new in the Conference itself? Normally such a meeting is made of an opening ceremony, two sub-commissions to allow a debate among Member States of the different texts, and a final session to adopt formally the document. The following changes have been introduced on the basis of innovations already emerging in earlier UNESCO conferences and on the basis of proposals made during the consultation process. The opening plenary sessions, with the consensus of Member States, were organized in such a way as to limit the number of interventions to three for each of the five regions, plus interventions from the multilateral co-operative partners of the Conference and key international NGOs. Between the opening sessions and the two sub-commissions, thirty-five working groups were held on the themes and sub-themes of the conference; each working group was conducted by the different networks involved in their preparation, and UNESCO requested that a regional and gender balance be ensured.

Three media events were organized *within* the programme of the conference: one on „adult learning and urban renewal", a second on „women empowerment and adult learning", and a third – a video conference between India and Hamburg, Germany – on „adult literacy". These three events allowed many actors from the different regions of the world to be present virtually within the premises of the Conference. The third debate, broadcast by the Indian Broadcasting Corporation, was seen by more than seventy million people! Moreover, each morning a printed special newspaper was issued „reflecting" not only the activities but also the opinions and proposals of the participants, facilitating the organization of many informal meetings and caucus groups, helping to reconstruct a new enlarged community of adult learning. The exhibition hall, where the presentation of books and learning materials were accompanied by artistic visual presentations, was designed also to facilitate contacts and informal meetings. Finally, the closing event – a street festival around the premises of the UNESCO Institute for Education – kept the same spirit alive, before each of the one thousand five hundred representatives went back to their country.

The success of the Conference has to be tempered by some of its limits, e.g., the dramatic absence of Russia and China, for respectively economic and diplomatic reasons, the very weak participation of representatives of employers and trade unions, the difficulty of reaching the cover pages of western media in covering the events, etc.

But, in spite of these limits, the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education was, to use the word of the Director-General of the UNESCO, a „turning point" in its affirmation of a new and enlarged vision of learning throughout life, in the concrete commitments made to improve the conditions and quality of adult learning, and in the way it initiated – at the global level –

a new and direct dialogue between public representatives and actors from civil society.

This Conference, called CONFINTEA, captured the significant transition taking place on the educational national scenes in all regions of the world, and produced an enlarged vision of our field.

The Hamburg Conference referred, for example, to the millions of migrants who have to master new skills and languages and rapidly understand new laws and „façons de faire". CONFINTEA addressed the deadlock facing the health-care systems unless „intensive" health promotion and education programmes are introduced. It insisted on gender equity and autonomization of citizens through significant and creative learning. It observed that the fishing and agricultural practices could not be transformed – as earnestly required for sustainable development – without the introduction of adult extension programmes. The demand to back with training opportunities the fifty thousand newly elected local councillors in Central and Eastern Europe was underlined. For such purposes, the delegates were convinced that societies cannot wait for, and rely only on, the initial schooling of children, because this educational effort will take at least twenty-five years to produce its effect. Adult learning is needed now, they said in the Hamburg *Declaration*, to meet these and many more challenges.

The conclusions of the eight different United Nations summits, held in the course of the decade, were convergent. In all these global conferences: in Jomtien in 1990 on education, in Rio in 1992 on environment, in Vienna in 1993 on human rights, in Cairo in 1994 on population, in Copenhagen in 1995 on social development, in Beijing in 1995 on women, in Istanbul in 1996 on the habitat and in Rome in 1996 on food – the creative participation of citizens was clearly proposed as a key condition to confront the challenges ahead. Following these summits, and in line with their diagnosis, the delegates at CONFINTEA gave evidence to what has become the Hamburg vision: that the learning capacity of human beings, that the unfolding of human potential, that creative learning throughout life will be central to the task of shaping the new century and the new millennium.

The Conference, however, will only be recognized historically as a „turning point" if, in its follow-up, the Member States, the multilateral organizations and the NGOs will implement the pledges they have consigned in the *Declaration* and in the *Agenda for the Future*. The real success of the Conference lies ahead of us. It is in our hands.

ISCAE CONFERENCE REPORTS

INTERNATIONAL EXPERT SEMINAR: METHODS OF COMPARATIVE ANDRAGOGY

Margaret A. Charters ■ USA

University of Bamberg, Germany, September 24-27, 1995

The International Society for Comparative Adult Education (ISCAE) held its first international expert seminar *Methods of Comparative Andragogy* at the University of Bamberg, Germany between September 24th and 27th, 1995. The aim of the seminar was to collect, share, and discuss for publication the consensus on definitions, standards, methods, and current problems in research methodology in comparative andragogy. Prof Dr Jost Reischmann was host and president of ISCAE. Dr Michal Bron Jr of Sweden was Conference Chairman. Fourteen countries were represented among the 31 participants.

Prior to the seminar, the *Annual Conference of the German Commission of Professors of Adult Education* took place in Bamberg. The juxtaposition of the two events was capitalized upon by our host to the advantage of both groups. The final program of the professors' conference „Trends in International Adult Education" was provided by ISCAE panelists: Dušan Savićević, Serbia; Barry J. Hake, the Netherlands; Ana Krajnc, Slovenia; and Alan Knox, USA. Early-arriving seminar members attended and participated in the discussion. Graduate students in the University of Bamberg Adult Education program assisted in the implementation of the Expert Seminar and participated as observers at many of the sessions and in informal exchanges with the international visitors.

Dr Alfred Hierold, Rector of the University of Bamberg opened the seminar with a brief history of the evolution of this institution in Bavaria from a classical „acádemie de philosophie" in 1647 to a full university of the humanities and social sciences in 1979.

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The importance of the researcher in the process of comparative research was the focus in the opening seminar session. Panelists Michal Bron (Polish/Swedish), Marcie Boucouvalas (Greek/American), Jindra Kulich (Czech/Canadian) and Barry J. Hake (UK/Holland) shared insights with anecdotes from their own multicultural backgrounds. Language is one thing; understanding the culture, another. We need to work in teams as there is no such thing as apolitical; we are full of biases. Rigor in comparative andragogy „includes constant vigilance to ontological and epistemological aspects of the researcher and his/her world".

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Why Compare?

At the first working session Paul Bélanger, UNESCO Hamburg, Peter Jarvis, UK, Joachim H. Knoll, Germany and Ana Krajnc, Slovenia reviewed the diverse purposes of comparative research. They included: to „learn from each other"; to celebrate differences; to understand ourselves; intellectual curiosity; to understand systems and policy; to develop models and explain data, among others (increase understanding and functioning, Knox).

Alexander N. Charters, Alan Knox, Dušan Savićević and Colin J. Titmus provided an historical and current review of the structures, patterns and methods used in adult education comparative research. The search for „a standard" proved elusive. Charters stated that the principles of research and methodology or design of research projects for comparative adult education are the same as for research projects in other fields of education. The choice of a specific method depends on the topic of the study. Knox emphasized the value of using social indicators for normative reference points. He suggested developing profiles to interpret what happens in each country and interpret the specific country within larger groups using cluster analysis to develop hypotheses, minimize ethnocentrism and acknowledge bias. „Methodology", Savićević said on the other hand „is not only the study of methods, techniques and procedures but includes both logical and epistemological dimensions of a particular discipline that has its basis in the philosophical disciplines, axiology and epistemology". The necessity to seriously train andragogy researchers in methodology in both undergraduate and graduate programs was emphasized. Semantic confusion remains. Savićević believes that the uncritical application of a conceptual apparatus is not always appropriate in the interpretation of andragogical phenomena. He supports efforts towards scientifically establishing andragogy as a discipline. Titmus spoke of the lack of quantitative data available. UNESCO's attempt to draw up a standard classification of education for statistical purposes excluded a large part of adult education by ignoring short courses. Lack of resources has prohibited the monitoring of research processes. He reminded the group that no one has yet „devised theories of adult learning and teaching which are generally accepted as valid for the whole of adult education in all societies". Further work in the epistemology of adult education is necessary.

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Studies in Comparative Adult Education under Discussion

Following this overview, four quite different research processes were described and critique based on the following books: *Landmarks in International Adult Education* ed. by A. N. Charters, R. J. Hilton, London 1989, *Workers' and Post-Secondary Education, A Cross-Polity Perspective* by A. Bron-Wojciechowska, Uppsala 1989 (Michal Bron was reactor), *Strengthening Adult and Continuing Education* by A. Knox, San Francisco 1993, and *Continuing Education in Higher Education, Academic Self-Concept and Public Policy in Three European Countries* by Joachim H. Knoll, Colin J. Titmus, Jürgen Wittpoth, Leeds 1993. The presenters were: Eitan Israeli, John Peters, Dušan Savićević, Karel Turza and John Henschke. Reaction was provided by the authors or their representatives.

The 9-topic protocol in the Charters process for describing landmark programs plus the transparency of the selection of programs for comparison has been adapted and found useful for comparison in other studies, most recently in some work with Transnational Corporations (TNCs) in Brazil.

Bron-Wojciechowska examined higher education policies in countries with different socio-political systems: Yugoslavia, Poland, US, and Germany. The role of universities, trade unions and businesses in providing access to post-secondary education for blue collar workers was examined. Data were collected from secondary sources plus field interviews and observations. The study shows: 1) There are considerable differences in what country education policies provide for and what actually happens. 2) Existing theoretical models of social change and education only partially account for the inequalities observed in worker access to educational opportunities in the four countries. 3) There is no sharp distinction between the Eastern and Western countries studied on blue collar worker access to post-secondary education. „The researcher strained to find coherence in the diversity present across the four countries. Ironically, in her quest for coherence, she discovered that problems of access are indeed universal".

The Knox work included 175 case studies from 35 countries. Collaborating colleagues from other countries analyzed pertinent cases to draw conclusions about their country. The book builds on the comparative findings to arrive at recommendations for strengthening planning in US provider agencies. Discussion of the case study method focused on the necessity of evaluation at three levels: the writing/writers of the case studies; co-ordination of the case studies in the countries and the analysis of the publishing researcher. Masterful synthesis can be undermined, for comparative purposes, by bias due to the selection of cases.

The historical method was used by Knoll, Titmus, Wittpoth in their study of the penetration of continuing education into higher education in France, the Federal Republic of Germany and Great Britain. Each country was examined individually to trace the way the current situation has been reached. The countries were then compared to indicate the extent to which the forces operating on developments in continuing and higher education are either peculiar to, or shared by other countries. Discussion on this qualitative study centered on the absence of quantitative data available and the translation challenges of working with materials in three languages and the need for sensitivity to influence of the general culture, religion and history of the separate states. Henschke suggested that we look at a paradigm of the stages an organization goes through in reaching maturity and consider the kinds of research most appropriate for each stage. At the early stage of growth in a field such as adult education, one can justify the use of different research methods.

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Problems and Pitfalls

After these four major research processes had been presented and discussed, the seminar participants turned to a consideration of problems and pitfalls in current comparative andragogy. Researchers' presentations of processes in on-going projects were reacted to by an invited discussant followed by open discussion. Discussants were: Roger K. Morris (Australia), Aija Lauva (Latvia), Dušan Savićević (Serbia), John Henschke (USA), Sandra Kainina (Latvia), Povilas Kuprys (Lithuania), and Kamil Škoda (Czech Republic).

Colette Dufresne-Tasse reported that adult education in the museum has never been subjected to in-depth comparative analysis. However, the similarity of the statistical data collected, primarily by governments, in western countries concerning their audiences permits comparisons of a descriptive nature.

We know who goes to the museum, why they go there and their degree of satisfaction. To date, such information has satisfied institutions using the marketing approach to their audiences. These descriptions however, do not tell how or why such activities please. When the marketing approach fails, as seems to be reflected in current trends, it becomes necessary to know how or why the museum activities please in order to provide more successful interventions. Answering these questions requires local in-depth analytical studies. Dufresne-Tasse suggests that „these analyses should stem from a model and be based on evaluation tools that will provide an explanation of the results of the interventions generated by the model". She believes this process is „equally essential for carrying out comparative analyses in a number of countries". The present state of the study of adult education in the museum calls for a deductive approach, despite its shortcomings and evidence favoring an inductive approach for other comparative studies. The use of a „flexible and evolving, but nonetheless pre-established model" is necessary as researchers in museums are „neither at a preliminary stage of exploration of the phenomena nor at a very advanced stage of in-depth study". She provided a description of one such model and the tools and instruments (including one to measure psychological functioning) needed for its study developed by researchers with the Groupes de recherche sur les musées de l'education de l'adulte at the Université de Montréal.

The problems of receiving funding for research when perceived needs of researchers and their institutions are not synonymous and the challenge of developing new instruments for measurement were highlighted. Potential pitfalls of adopting research methods from studies at different stages of maturity of the field, and adapting research methodology from different disciplines, were discussed.

Zoran Jelenc reported on *Adult Education Research Trends in Central and Eastern European Countries*. The report was based on part of the UNESCO project, *Adult Education Research, World Trend Analysis* (A UNESCO-UIE 92-93 Project).

The study *The State of the Art Study of Research on the Education of Adults in the European Countries* was conducted by the European Society for Research on Education of Adults (ESREA). The research method employed was that of mail questionnaire. The answers to the questionnaire were sent in the form of national reports which were then synthesized into a joint report discussed at a UNESCO workshop conducted by Jinda Kulich. The second stage of the study used a new enlarged questionnaire, so that to „questions on research in adult education were added questions about general conditions in both the social, political and economic development of the state in the development of adult education and in the research on adult education since 1989".

Studies such as these help create a data base for research. While different areas are compared, reliable comparisons are hard to achieve due to the uneven quality of the data. Much was gathered by volunteers. The whole world is in transition, and researchers must maintain an internationalist approach, not just looking at Europe. People are still afraid to speak about the strengths of the old systems. They need to be more critical of the west. This ESREA study reflects stagnation, even retrogression of adult education research activity. „The insight that it is adult education which represents one of the most significant means for social growth and change has not yet penetrated into social consciousness". The political and social transformations in many countries have caused a shifting of government research priorities toward labor market and employment research. There has been a shift from pre-1989 priority on adults as learners to post-1989 emphasis on adult education organizations. Humanistic research projects come at the tail of priorities of international bodies and funds. Programs and systems for training of young researchers in adult education do not exist, with perhaps the exception of M.A. and Ph.D. programs. Problems of dissemination of results were also discussed. Possibilities for publishing are limited and few opportunities for cross fertilization of scientific ideas at professional meetings of researchers exist. Data bases are limited, and the data infrastructure within countries and between countries need stimulation. A major pitfall is to think that „Central and Eastern European countries can be helped merely through providing insights gained so far, with models developed in other countries or with patronage over how such plans are to be implemented". They first have to help themselves, but should strengthen international co-operation and together with appropriate technical and material help, together move forward.

Most recently there has been work on developing basic frameworks for shaping adult education policy and an increased interest in theoretical and general research.

Wolfgang Jütte addressed the problems of translation in comparative adult education, when success of technical communication is crucial such as in his work in Spain. The process involves a series of problem solving efforts as conceptual equivalence and the context of the work, not just word for word translation, is necessary. A translator needs knowledge of the process of terminology to avoid the pitfall of words that have changed meaning over time. There is a question as to whether to use footnotes or glossaries for imbedding differences that are not common into the context. While Jütte claimed it is not appropriate for the research game to try to standardize terms, others found that lexicons had been developed and found useful in other fields such as theology. The German Adult Education Association (Deutscher Volkshochschulverband) DVV, project on terminological equivalents and the multi-lingual data base of Hans Hovenberg of Sweden and the UNESCO classification are efforts in this direction in the field of adult education. However an important pre-requisite for international specialist communication is further development of one's own national system of terms. Translation is a methodology problem. It is important to work with supra-national organizations. The tendency for English to become the „lingua franca" does not solve the deeper problems of translation. A knowledge of the source language is absolutely necessary for success in comparative studies.

Madeleine Blais described a study of the comparison of the effects of university studies on various dimensions of the adult's life, between Montréal and Caracas. Researchers used a recorded in-depth semi-structured interview method. The challenge of communicating between two research teams from two cultures was met by a „dialogic" approach. This approach of discussing hows and whys at each stage of the project only partially solved the communication problem but shed much light on the kinds of adaptation and understandings needed in research designs for multi-cultural contexts.

Makoto Yamaguchi came to comparative adult education from the sociology of education approach. Her concerns related primarily to the development of indicators as an effective source of basic data to help comparative analysis. The Center for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) under the INES project developed a set of indicators on the organization and operation of education systems, added to in 1995, which also includes indicators of the results of education. Limitations were discussed. Researchers also need knowledge of the legal system and social history of a country. Indicators with which to compare living conditions of societies and explain the present life profiles are also necessary. These indicators vary due to age and educational attainment. The design of questionnaires should also include the sociology of education approach. An international team is indispensable. Communication and co-ordination is crucial in designing the questionnaire.

Barry J. Hake, who is currently secretary of European Society for Research in the Education of Adults (ESREA), commented from the perspective of a contributor and/or project leader in a number of international European research projects. He concludes that „I am not as yet convinced that we have got onto the 'steep learning curve' which would raise the level of our research effort". He claims there is a „serious failure to provide a rigorous theoretical basis for most comparative studies". He perceives adult education as „a field of institutions, activities, practices and behaviors which can be scientifically studied from the perspective of the well-established social scientific disciplines". This is in opposition to those who seek to establish a distinct discipline of adult education or andragogy. The purpose of comparative studies, Hake claims, should be to develop a body of knowledge and formation of social scientific theories, rather than „learning from each other". Adult educators as „generalists" all too often ignore the recognized canons of historical research and theoretical perspectives available within the educational and social sciences. Distinct academic departments of adult education must be multi-disciplinary. „The best work in the European adult education research networks is coming from those with a good grounding in disciplinary-based research rather than general adult educators or 'andragogues'". Communicative networks are the fundamental elements necessary to work together for effective research. We need to communicate not just with ourselves but those outside the field and induct *them* into adult education. Lots of people other than adult educators are interested in life long learning. Comparative adult education researchers also need to make a systematic effort to identify, encourage and support the younger researchers to secure the future of comparative research. „Much policy-related research is characterized by conceptual poverty and methodological illiterac.... There are many unanswered questions concerning the pluralistic disciplinary foundations of research on the education of adults".

Jindra Kulich added, „The monumental political social, economic and cultural changes which are ongoing ... demand significant unlearning, re-education and new learning. Adult education can and must play an important role in this challenging process ... If we can resist the temptation as 'do-gooders' to force our models and solutions on the quite different situation and needs in the region, and if our colleagues there will resist the temptation for 'quick fixes' and for accepting uncritically models from abroad and if they learn from their own past, they will enrich significantly our knowledge and practice of individual and social change and the role adult education can play in these processes".

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Summary and Conclusions

Several approaches were used by the seminar participants to summarize the proceedings. A participative moderation technique was used with the assistance of the University of Bamberg graduate students, as the seminar members sorted and resorted individually developed lists of major issues discussed. (Communication and team management topped the list). In addition, a small group consisting of Marcie Boucouvalas, Paul Bélanger and Alexander N. Charters presented a summative report for the open discussion by the entire seminar.

The field of adult education has matured. The seminar focus was more on „refining“ than „defining“ the field. Researchers have distinguished between comparative and international work. A retrospective from Exeter to Bamberg reveals an expansion in resources. Researchers have come a long way in area translation. Many materials are in English. This is both a blessing and a restriction. The increase in the amount of publications and the bibliographies available are providing a literature base. While Adult Continuing Education is gaining independence as an organization, it must not forget it is part of a larger base. Language and ethnocentricity are a constant tension for communication. The seminar emphasized the need for more experienced professionals to nurture young researchers forgetting role and status as they join the group of inquirers. The inclusion of first-time members and graduate students in this seminar was evidence of the group's commitment to this goal.

Concerns remain:

1. Despite sufficient consensus to move forward, not everyone is in agreement about adult education/andragogy, particularly in regard to the crossing of boundaries into other fields.

2. The lack of resources is reflected by the small size of the seminar group and the absence of broader representation. A network to promote research is needed.

3. There is a need to introduce comparative research into the academic study programs and also for a textbook in comparative education.

4. Basic statistics are missing. The data infrastructure needs to be rebuilt by influencing databank collection policies, encouraging keeping program enrollment data and other raw data for research.

5. There are still dangers of adoption vs. adaptation of models in comparative research. The exchange of scholars between countries, even at the student level, will promote interest in comparative work.

6. The very essence of what is meant by „research" in the shifting academic environment, fueled by such writers as Boyer and Rice in their book *Scholarship Reconsidered* was discussed.

7. Questions regarding the quality of the research currently being done were raised: What is acceptable as evidence as between inquiry and research? What is the expertise of our researchers in analysis and recording? What are our standards? How do we evaluate?

8. Comparative analysis requires the use of methodologies of disciplines such as psychology, sociology, history, and economics. Do we use the state of the art in comparative work from these disciplines? What can we keep, what adapt, and to what extent can we exchange research methodologies? No answer was reached, but the need for communication, not only among disciplines, but also between research, teaching and outreach was clearly expressed.

9. There is a need to broaden our thinking about the possibilities for publication. Look for the application of our research to other fields, i.e. gerontology, consumer behavior, museology, for publication opportunities. Despite the requirement of academic „publication" in the narrow sense, scholars should consider „making public" their research findings in a fashion sufficiently timely to influence policy.

In addition to the working sessions, the seminar participants were entertained by the Mayor of Bamberg in the beautifully restored rococo Council Chamber of the ancient town hall. He shared a short history of the region and treated his international guests to food and wine of Franconia. The medieval character of the city, one of the few not destroyed during the war, is recognized as part of the cultural heritage of UNESCO. The baroque appearance of the center city, a legacy of the prince-bishops of the dynasty of Schönborn was enjoyed by participants on walking tours both formal and informal as they moved from their living quarters to the university. They also visited historic restaurants and local breweries to sample the local beer with the smoked taste, Bavarian food, and music and dancing of the region.

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INTERNATIONAL EXPERT SEMINAR ON COMPARATIVE ANDRAGOGY

Margaret A. Charters ■ USA

Radovljica, Slovenia, September 10-12, 1998

ISCAE held its 1998 Conference in Radovljica, Slovenia, September 10-12, 1998. 39 members representing 18 different countries gathered at a residential former Trade Union Educational Center situated in a picturesque area at the foot of the Julian Alps, near Lake Bled and 50 km from Ljubljana. Canada, Japan, Korea, USA and Australia were the countries present from outside Europe. President of the Conference and Programme committee was Dr Jost Reischmann, Selector of the conference papers Dr Michal Bron Jr and President of the Organizing committee Dr Zoran Jelenc.

The ISCAE conference announcement invited colleagues entering the field of comparative adult education to participate with experienced and reputable researchers in the field. Participants were invited to bring not only final research reports, but reports of work in progress for discussion in the informal and supportive style characteristic of its work. As a result there was great variation in the papers.

Delegates were welcomed by Dr Miloš Komac, State Secretary at the Ministry of Science and Technology, Jože Remec, the mayor of the Radovljica municipality, Dr Jost Reischmann, president of ISCAE and Dr Vida Mohorčič Špolar, directress of the Slovene Adult Education Centre (SAEC).

The first Plenary Session, chaired by Alexander N. Charters of Syracuse University, USA, featured Marcie Boucouvalas from Virginia Tech/University of Virginia, USA. She chose a dialogue format „On the Meaning of Comparison in Comparative Adult Education". She focused on the manner and mode of our thinking when engaged in the act of comparison, both when collecting and when analyzing data. She used the area of adult cognition to establish the framework for the dialogue; the three-fold progression of discrete, relativistic, and dialectical thinking. „Thinking in either/or terms produces a very different kind of comparison than thinking contextually. Thinking dialectically moves us to thinking in terms of the similarities undergirding the human condition", she said. She challenged the group „Doesn't it make sense, as comparativists in the field of adult education to do our part in investigating, illuminating and dialoguing about the manner and mode of our thinking when engaged in comparison?". Awareness is the first step in such a process and the leader achieved that with participants in this session!

At the second Plenary Session, chaired by Roger K. Morris, University of Technology, Sydney, Australia, three papers were presented.

Zoran Jelenc of SAEC spoke about „National Strategies of Adult Education". He presented cases of national development programs of adult education from Great Britain, Sweden, the Netherlands and Nordic Countries and evaluated them as to the extent they satisfy the elements of his hypothetical model of the conceptualization and systemic regulation of adult education developed in Slovenia. These elements are: 1) Broad social, political and scientific schemes, 2) Basic objectives of program, 3) Adult education scientific-conceptual scheme, 4) The needs for adult education, 5) Structure of system and organization of adult education in a country, 6) The present systemic regulation of adult education, 7) The presence of the national program, 8) The strategy of life-long learning.

While the programs do not satisfy many requirements from the hypothetical model, „a significant common characteristic is that they are all more or less based on the conception and strategy of the life-long nature of learning. However, they are concerned only with the use of the conception of life-long learning but not with its more detailed analysis and strategy".

Aniko Kalman of Lajos Kossuth University, Debrecen, Hungary shared observations on a PHARE-subsidized program on extension training of Hungarian public administrative staff. Six countries participated: Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary, Romania and the Slovak Republic. PHARE provided continuous comparative oversight of the project.

Training of public administrators in Hungary has traditionally been separated from that in the corporate sector. Controversy exists as to whether public administration demands the same competence as that in the private sector, and whether leading public officials, other administrative staff and elected local officials can be trained together. The objective of the program is to enable leading administrative staff to transfer their professional knowledge in an effective and up-to-date way, thus strengthening state institutions at both central and local levels and familiarize them with operating in a market economy.

Extension training for public administration has been a problem for years. Motivation to enroll was provided by Hungarian membership in the European Union and the desire to meet its expectations. It also provided the possibility of shaping standard training. The basic problem in Hungary is the lack of a body to supervise a civil service exam system. A final evaluation clearly showed a need for a broad introduction and further teaching of the curriculum module. Adaptation of the program to Hungarian conditions and individual careers needs to take place. Instead of the promised qualification as experts capable of negotiating on an international level, the participants were merely awarded certificates of participation. Kalman recommends that such extension training programs participate and co-operate with various universities and colleges.

The final paper in Plenary Session 2, was a paper by Nevenka Bogataj of SAEC, comparing „Study Circles in Slovenia and Sweden". Slovenian study circles have only been in existence for 5 years compared to Sweden's 100 year history. They are organized on the same principles as in Sweden but were offered by the andragogical profession rather than being spontaneously generated. Even though they are expanding rapidly in numbers and in participants, less than one percent of the population is involved. She commented on the similarity of topics despite the deep contextual differences in the two countries but was surprised at the small percentage of circles involved in dealing with local or personal problems, in Slovenia. For example, unemployment in Slovenia had not led to an increase in study circles. Currently in Sweden, the so-called „study circles" are purely voluntary courses for adults with fees. It is expected that this comparative study will provide the opportunity to identify key principles of study circles as a form of non-formal adult education.

Following the Plenaries, the group divided into two concurrent working groups. Working group #1, moderated by Nataša Elvira Jelenc of SAEC, dealt with philosophical issues. Dilnawaz A. Siddiqui of Clarion University in Pennsylvania, USA, discussed „End of the Ideology Debate: Implications for Philosophy of Comparative Adult Education". Siddiqui addressed some broad external factors that have caused the weak tradition of the philosophy of social science in the Comparative Adult Education (CAE) field. In particular he refers to the „end of history" and „end of ideology" declarations in the „apparent" victory of capitalism and liberal democracy. This implies that the era of ideological warfare is over; he bemoans the lack of conscious ideological debate at the paradigmatic level among scholars in CAE. He says, „with the growing grip of multinational corporations over the lives of the underprivileged masses in various parts of the world, the awareness-raising curricula are being replaced by narrow skill training consistent with the profit-oriented goals of global business". He calls for new perspectives and ideologies. He proposes a Tawhidi perspective on common core values based on the unity of the Providence, unity of cosmos, unity of life, unity of human race, and unity of knowledge or truth as a talking point which he hopes will help CAE researchers develop meta-theoretical bases for their discipline.

Pierre Besnard of the Sorbonne Centre de Formation Continue, Paris, spoke on „Lifelong Learning: Modern Mysticism (Symbols-Rituals)". He spoke of the vital structures and the way society is organized in paradigms which determine how education is presented. „It is perhaps in the space between imminence and transcendence, an invisible line of demarcation between the profane and the sacred that in its ambivalence acquires its sense". He proposed a tri-part method 1) regressive 2) progressive, by effort, apprenticeship, reflection and culture and 3) transgressive (progress, reparation, promotion, liberation) in which the authorities overtake the norms and regulation which they propose themselves to cross the dynamic ravages of permanent questioning. A continuation of questioning the values of reference in society is essential for adult educators.

Workshop #2, moderated by Marcie Boucouvalas, focused on historical issues. John Henschke, of University of Missouri, St. Louis, probed some of the historical antecedents which continue to shape varying conceptions of andragogy. He claims that the Hebrew prophets, as an untapped antecedent to the concept of andragogy, provide an especially rich and fertile resource to interpret it. He selected the Hebrew words „Lamadh" (learn), „Yarah" (teach), „Sakhal" (instruct), „Yaats" (guide), „Nachah" (lead), and „Derekh" (example/way/model) to illustrate. Henschke expects that by combining a probe of these words and elements from the writing of others, a more comprehensive definition of andragogy may evolve. „Andragogy might be seen as a scientific discipline for the study of the theory, processes, technology, and anything else of value and benefit including learning, teaching, instructing, guiding, leading, and modeling/exemplifying a way of life, which would bring adults to their full degree of humaneness".

Jindra Kulich, Vancouver, BC, Canada described his research in progress, „Adult Learning in the Nineteenth Century in the Mirror of Novels and Short Stories: A Comparative Study of Literature in Several European Countries". Historical research on adult learning in the nineteenth century is still relatively sparse. A surprisingly reliable source of information on how adults engaged in the process of learning, especially in the villages and small towns, is described in novels and short stories of the period. This source is largely untapped. This research into the literature of Scandinavia, Central and Eastern Europe is in its early stages, but many examples of both how adults learned and the barriers to learning were shared by this multi-lingual researcher.

Plenary 3, chaired by Jost Reischmann of Bamberg University, Germany included four papers. Roger K. Morris, University of Technology, Sydney, Australia, compared the 1997 Adult Learners' Week (ALW) in Australia and in Slovenia. This simple, straightforward comparison, using only published materials, can suggest issues, content and a process for a much more ambitious comparative research project in many nations. To this end, a preliminary draft of a possible survey instrument designed to collect the needed data was presented to the conference for critique. The idea of an ALW originated in the USA with the American Association of Adult and Continuing Education. In 1992 an ALW was developed in the UK and it was this latter model that was followed by Australia in 1995 and Slovenia in 1996. The basic premise is to raise the public profile of adult learning and to celebrate its benefits to the individual and the society. The managing bodies were similar. AAACE in Australia, with the guidance of a National Advisory Committee (½ adult and community sector, ½ government sector) managed the project. In Slovenia, the SAEC, founded by the government of the Republic in 1991 to promote the development of adult education, managed the ALW. SAEC is the main non-government, non-profit institution for adult education in Slovenia. Both countries received important official recognition, roughly comparable budgets given the differing circumstances; the range of promotional materials produced were similar; both countries incorporated a series of awards into the celebration; the media was used extensively. Both countries have received continued funding. The goals of ALW are increasingly supported by the wider community in Australia and Slovenia.

Heribert Hinzen, IIZ DVV-Project Office Budapest, Hungary, described the on-going research, „Comparative Aspects and Co-operative Approaches of Adult Education in Hungary, Austria and Germany“. He sketched the history of these three countries, which at one time were all mainly part of the same empire. Today there are three separate states which are the independent or associated members of the European Union. The project looked at the kind of adult education institutions that evolved serving different needs due to differing social changes in the area. The second major part of the study deals with a documentation of different types of co-operation between adult education institutions of the 3 countries during the past 20 years. This will lead to a better understanding and future co-operation in the heart of Europe.

Ana Krajnc from the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Ljubljana addressed „Tendencies in Adult Education from Comparative Perspectives“. Paradigms of adult education have essentially changed in the transition from modern to post-modern theory of adult education. Previously, the greatest emphasis was on the national adult education systems as closed and coherent entities, and mass adult education. In post-modern times, the study of individuality and small groups forms the core elements, and diversity replaces convergence. She raised the question: „What should the comparative methods be in an environment of several (or an endless chain of entities) in education that constantly change?“ A key aspect of the post-modern period is experiential learning.

Vida Mohorčič Špolar, Directress of SAEC, moderated a session on the projected international comparative research project, „The Role and Organization of Adult Education in the Period of Transition“. This is a 3-year project to take place between 1999 and 2001. The participating countries are: Croatia, Czech Republic, Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, Hungary, Macedonia, Moldavia, Poland, Romania, Russia, Slovakia and Slovenia. These countries have all entered the processes of social transformation from the mono-party system to the multi-party, pluralistic democracy. The research will compare the period between 1980-89, the period before transition and 1990-1998, the period of transition. This project will require both a comparative theoretical and comparative empirical approach.

The proposed themes for study are: 1) Status and role of adult education in the period of transition, 2) Position of adult education in the educational system, 3) Policy formation in adult education, 4) Legislative framework of adult education, 5) Institutions and providers of adult education, 6) Programs and participants in adult education, 7) Innovation in adult education, 8) Adult educators (credentials, evaluation etc.), 9) Financing adult education, and 10) Changes in adult education participation.

Discussion focused on questions of the goals of the project, the need to weigh ambitions between what is important and what is possible, perhaps diminish aspirations and simplify the project. Questions remain about how to organize the research work; whether to rely on national reports or have different topics prepared by different countries. It was noted that there are no statistics on non-formal education. Some felt it was necessary to know more than the „state of affairs" in adult education, and thus study „attitudes" and socio/psychological aspects of it. There were concerns expressed about the lack of data and reminders to consider the perceptions of the researchers.

This discussion was followed by a sharing of actual information about adult education in countries in transition, led by Zoran Jelenc. Representatives from Russia and Hungary described some specifics of the adult education situation in their own countries.

Working Group #3 was moderated by Heribert Hinzen.

Makoto Yamaguchi of Ryutsu Keizai University, Japan spoke of „The Social, Cultural and Economic History in Japanese Adult Learning" in an International Context. She described the impact of external forces in Japan's educational culture during four periods, namely the missions to China in the period from the 7th to 9th century; a national policy of isolation in the 16th century; the Meiji Restoration in the 19th century and the occupation policy of the United States after World War II. She described the impact of the shift in thinking from the Confucian doctrine of the superiority of men, deeply rooted in Japanese culture, to the current emancipation of women. The unique definition of literacy in Japan defined as the ability to read mass media and documents and the major role played by the new media in the change in adult learning were also of particular interest.

Renata Čepić from the Faculty of Philosophy in Rijeka, Croatia described a research project in progress to establish what the prominent theoreticians and practitioners of adult education think about literacy today. Seven countries are participating, Croatia, Slovenia, Austria, Germany, Canada, France and Hungary. Six questions were asked in all countries about: 1) controversies in understanding and defining literacy, 2) relationship between the social environment and literacy, 3) the reconceptualization of literacy, 4) differences in complexity and diversity of literacy forms between developed and developing countries, 5) functional literacy, and 6) the future of literacy in a world of change. Literacy was seen not as the ability to read and write but the ability to learn in the context of life-long learning.

Working Group #4 was moderated by Jindra Kulich.

Andor Maroti of Eotvos Lorand University in Budapest addressed the topic „Is There Still a Place for Enlightened Attitude in our Post-Modern Era?“ While the speaker did not answer this question positively regarding the philosophy of adult education, he did make suggestions for connections between the two eras to promote further discussion. The post-modern viewpoint preaches toleration of being different; it does not mention connections being achieved on the basis of consensus, perhaps due to fear of any tendency towards uniformity doing away with the independence of the parts.

Dušana Findeisen, a free-lance educator of adults from Ljubljana compared Condorcet's (1743) and Krek's (1865) influence. She concluded that adult education becomes more individualized if you increase learning of participants.

In the final session, Zvonka Pangerc Pahernik of the host institution described the Lifelong Learning Week in Slovenia. This annual pan-Slovenian event was based on the British model and the SAEC is the prime mover and coordinator. The planning process takes a year including the evaluation. The goal is to promote and develop life long learning at home, at work and in society and become a true festival of learning. They have strong media support and have involved a widening range of actors, their providers of learning possibilities, administrative bodies and participants.

Wolfgang Jütte of the University of Flensburg in Germany described the joint research project of UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) in Hamburg and the National Institute for Educational Research (NIER). This project „Transition Towards Lifelong Learning" was based on the hypothesis that world-wide societies are changing into learning societies. The project generated studies of 11 countries in four regions, Africa (Burkina Faso, South Africa), America (Canada, Mexico), Asia-Pacific (Australia, Japan, Thailand) and Europe (Germany, Sweden, Spain, Czech Republic) which have since been published as Comparative Studies on Lifelong Learning Policies: Report of a NIER and UIE joint research project, edited by NIER and UIE. Tokyo: National Institute for Educational Research, 1997. Special emphasis was put on methodological aspects of this international research project. A catalogue of qualitative and quantitative indicators formed the framework of analysis. Five groups of indicators were developed: initial education, higher education, adult education/training, learning environments and the global (educational) political orientation. The speaker described a number of practical research problems and methodological questions this research project has raised.

„Indicators of the learning society are still little elaborated. However indicator systems can be ONE appropriate instrument to approach the phenomenon of the learning society, if they are developed within an explicit theoretical framework".

As mentioned earlier in this report, ISCAE Conference organizers had invited papers and research in progress. It is anticipated that at the next meeting, the finished products will have benefited from the open discussion and feedback the work received from participants at this Radovljica, Slovenia meeting.

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APPENDIX

UNESCO: THE HAMBURG DECLARATION ON ADULT LEARNING

①

We, the participants in the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education, meeting in the Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg, reaffirm that only human-centred development and a participatory society based on the full respect of human rights will lead to sustainable and equitable development. The informed and effective participation of men and women in every sphere of life is needed if humanity is to survive and to meet the challenges of the future.

②

Adult education thus becomes more than a right; it is a key to the twenty-first century. It is both a consequence of active citizenship and a condition for full participation in society. It is a powerful concept for fostering ecologically sustainable development, for promoting democracy, justice, gender equity, and scientific, social and economic development, and for building a world in which violent conflict is replaced by dialogue and a culture of peace based on justice. Adult learning can shape identity and give meaning to life. Learning throughout life implies a rethinking of content to reflect such factors as age, gender equality, disability, language, culture and economic disparities.

③

Adult education denotes the entire body of ongoing learning processes, formal or otherwise, whereby people regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, and improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction to meet their own needs and those of their society. Adult learning encompasses both formal and continuing education, non-formal learning and the spectrum of informal and incidental learning available in a multicultural learning society, where theory- and practice-based approaches are recognized.

④

Though the content of adult learning and of education for children and adolescents will vary according to the economic, social, environmental and cultural context, and the needs of the people in the societies in which they take place, both are necessary elements of a new vision of education in which learning becomes truly lifelong. The perspective of learning throughout life commands such complementarity and continuity. The potential contribution of adult and continuing education to the creation of an informed and tolerant citizenry, economic and social development, the promotion of literacy, the alleviation of poverty and the preservation of the environment is enormous and should, therefore, be built upon.

⑤

The objectives of youth and adult education, viewed as a lifelong process, are to develop the autonomy and the sense of responsibility of people and communities, to reinforce the capacity to deal with the transformations taking place in the economy, in culture and in society as a whole, and to promote coexistence, tolerance and the informed and creative participation of citizens in their communities, in short to enable people and communities to take control of their destiny and society in order to face the challenges ahead. It is essential that approaches to adult learning be based on people's own heritage, culture, values and prior experiences and that the diverse ways in which these approaches are implemented enable and encourage every citizen to be actively involved and to have a voice.

⑥

This Conference recognizes the diversity of political, economic and social systems and governmental structures among Member States. In accordance with that diversity and to ensure full respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, this Conference acknowledges that the particular circumstances of Member States will determine the measures governments may introduce to further the spirit of our objectives.

⑦

The representatives of governments and organizations participating in the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education have decided to explore together the potential and the future of adult learning, broadly and dynamically conceived within a framework of lifelong learning.

⑧

During the present decade, adult learning has undergone substantial changes and experienced enormous growth in scope and scale. In the knowledge-based societies that are emerging around the world, adult and continuing education have become an imperative in the community and at the workplace. New demands from society and working life raise expectations requiring each and every individual to continue renewing knowledge and skills throughout the whole of his or her life. At the heart of this transformation is a new role for the state and the emergence of expanded partnerships devoted to adult learning within civil society. The state remains the essential vehicle for ensuring the right to education for all, particularly for the most vulnerable groups of society, such as minorities and indigenous peoples, and for providing an overall policy framework. Within the new partnership emerging between the public, the private and the community sectors, the role of the state is shifting. It is not only a provider of adult education services but also an adviser, a funder, and a monitoring and evaluation agency. Governments and social partners must take the necessary measures to support individuals in expressing their educational needs and aspirations, and in gaining access to educational opportunities throughout their lives. Within governments, adult education is not confined to ministries of education;

all ministries are engaged in promoting adult learning, and interministerial co-operation is essential. Moreover, employers, unions, non-governmental and community organizations, and indigenous people's and women's groups are involved and have a responsibility to interact and create opportunities for lifelong learning, with provision for recognition and accreditation.

⑨

Basic education for all means that people, whatever their age, have an opportunity, individually and collectively, to realize their potential. It is not only a right, it is also a duty and a responsibility both to others and to society as a whole. It is essential that the recognition of the right to education throughout life should be accompanied by measures to create the conditions required to exercise this right. The challenges of the twenty-first century cannot be met by governments, organizations or institutions alone; the energy, imagination and genius of people and their full, free and vigorous participation in every aspect of life are also needed. Youth and adult learning is one of the principal means of significantly increasing creativity and productivity, in the widest sense of those terms, and these in turn are indispensable to meeting the complex and interrelated problems of a world beset by accelerating change and growing complexity and risk.

⑩

The new concept of youth and adult education presents a challenge to existing practices because it calls for effective networking within the formal and non-formal systems, and for innovation and more creativity and flexibility. Such challenges should be met by new approaches to adult education within the concept of learning throughout life. Promoting learning, using mass media and local publicity, and offering impartial guidance are responsibilities for governments, social partners and providers. The ultimate goal should be the creation of a learning society committed to social justice and general well-being.

⑪

Adult literacy. Literacy, broadly conceived as the basic knowledge and skills needed by all in a rapidly changing world, is a fundamental human right. In every society literacy is a necessary skill in itself and one of the foundations of other life skills. There are millions, the majority of whom are women, who lack opportunities to learn or who have insufficient skills to be able to assert this right. The challenge is to enable them to do so. This will often imply the creation of preconditions for learning through awareness-raising and empowerment. Literacy is also a catalyst for participation in social, cultural, political and economic activities, and for learning throughout life. We therefore commit ourselves to ensuring opportunities for all to acquire and maintain literacy skills, and to create in all Member States a literate environment to support oral culture. The provision of learning opportunities for all, including the unreached and the excluded, is the most urgent concern. The Conference welcomes the initiative for a literacy decade in honour of Paulo Freire, to begin in 1998.

⑫

Recognition of *the right to education and the right to learn* throughout life is more than ever a necessity; it is the right to read and write, the right to question and analyse, the right to have access to resources, and to develop and practise individual and collective skills and competencies.

⑬

Women's integration and empowerment. Women have a right to equal opportunities; society, in turn, depends on their full contribution in all fields of work and aspects of life. Youth and adult learning policies should be responsive to local cultures and give priority to expanding educational opportunities for all women, while respecting their diversity and eliminating prejudices and stereotypes that both limit their access to youth and adult education and restrict the benefits they derive from them. Any attempts to restrict women's right to literacy, education and training must be considered unacceptable. Practices and measures should be taken to counter them.

⑭

Culture of peace and education for citizenship and democracy. One of the foremost challenges of our age is to eliminate the culture of violence and to construct a culture of peace based on justice and tolerance within which dialogue, mutual recognition and negotiation will replace violence, in homes and communities, within nations and between countries.

⑮

Diversity and equality. Adult learning should reflect the richness of cultural diversity and respect traditional and indigenous peoples' knowledge and systems of learning; the right to learn in the mother tongue should be respected and implemented. Adult education faces an acute challenge in preserving and documenting the oral wisdom of minority groups, indigenous peoples and nomadic peoples. In turn, intercultural education should encourage learning between and about different cultures in support of peace, human rights and fundamental freedoms, democracy, justice, liberty, coexistence and diversity.

⑯

Health. Health is a basic human right. Investments in education are investments in health. Lifelong learning can contribute substantially to the promotion of health and the prevention of disease. Adult education offers significant opportunities to provide relevant, equitable and sustainable access to health knowledge.

⑰

Environmental sustainability. Education for environmental sustainability should be a lifelong learning process which recognizes that ecological problems exist within a socio-economic, political and cultural context. A sustainable future cannot be achieved without addressing the relationship between environmental problems and current development paradigms. Adult environmental education can play an important role in sensitizing and mobilizing communities and decision-makers towards sustained environmental action.

⑱

Indigenous education and culture. Indigenous peoples and nomadic peoples have the right of access to all levels and forms of education provided by the state. However, they are not to be denied the right to enjoy their own culture, or to use their own languages. Education for indigenous peoples and nomadic peoples should be linguistically and culturally appropriate to their needs and should facilitate access to further education and training.

⑲

Transformation of the economy. Globalization, changes in production patterns, rising unemployment and the difficulty of ensuring secure livelihoods call for more active labour policies and increased investment in developing the necessary skills to enable men and women to participate in the labour market and income-generating activities.

⑳

Access to information. The development of the new information and communication technologies brings with it new risks of social and occupational exclusion for groups of individuals and even businesses which are unable to adapt to this context. One of the roles of adult education in the future should therefore be to limit these risks of exclusion so that the information society does not lose sight of the human dimension.

㉑

The ageing population. There are now more older people in the world in relation to the total population than ever before, and the proportion is still rising. These older adults have much to contribute to the development of society. Therefore, it is important that they have the opportunity to learn on equal terms and in appropriate ways. Their skills and abilities should be recognized, valued and made use of.

㉒

In line with the Salamanca Statement, integration and access for people with disabilities should be promoted. Disabled persons have the right to equitable learning opportunities which recognize and respond to their educational needs and goals, and in which appropriate learning technology matches their special learning needs.

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We must act with the utmost urgency to increase and guarantee national and international investment in youth and adult learning, and the commitment of private and community resources to them. The Agenda for the Future which we have adopted here is designed to achieve this end.

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We call upon UNESCO as the United Nations lead agency in the field of education to play the leading role in promoting adult education as an integral part of a system of learning and to mobilize the support of all partners, particularly those within the United Nations system, in order to give priority to implementing the Agenda for the Future and to facilitating provision of the services needed for reinforcing international co-ordination and co-operation.

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We urge UNESCO to encourage Member States to adopt policies and legislation that are favourable to and accommodate people with disabilities in educational programmes, as well as being sensitive to cultural, linguistic, gender and economic diversity.

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We solemnly declare that all parties will closely follow up the implementation of this Declaration and the Agenda for the Future, clearly distinguishing their respective responsibilities and complementing and co-operating with one another. We are determined to ensure that lifelong learning will become a more significant reality in the early twenty-first century. To that end, we commit ourselves to promoting the culture of learning through the „one hour a day for learning“ movement and the development of a United Nations Week of Adult Learning.

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We, gathered together in Hamburg, convinced of the necessity of adult learning, pledge that all men and women shall be provided with the opportunity to learn throughout their lives. To that end, we will forge extended alliances to mobilize and share resources in order to make *adult learning a joy, a tool, a right and a shared responsibility.*

UNESCO: THE AGENDA FOR THE FUTURE

①

This *Agenda for the Future* sets out in detail the new commitment to the development of adult learning called for by the Hamburg Declaration on Adult Learning.

②

The *Agenda* focuses on common concerns facing humanity on the eve of the twenty-first century and on the vital role that adult learning has to play in enabling women and men of all ages to face these most urgent challenges with knowledge, courage and creativity.

③

The development of adult learning requires partnership between government departments, intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations, employers and trade unions, universities and research centres, the media, civil and community-level associations, facilitators of adult learning and the adult learners themselves.

④

Profound changes are taking place both globally and locally. They can be seen in a globalization of economic systems, in the rapid development of science and technology, in the age structure and mobility of populations, and in the emergence of an information-based and knowledge-based society. The world is also experiencing major changes in patterns of work and unemployment, a growing ecological crisis, and tensions between social groups based on culture, ethnicity, gender roles, religion and income. These trends are reflected in education, where those responsible for complex education systems are struggling to cope with new opportunities and demands, often with declining resources at their disposal.

⑤

In the course of the present decade, a series of conferences has focused world attention on key international problems. Beginning with the World Conference on Education for All: Meeting Basic Learning Needs (Jomtien, Thailand, 1990), they have included the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Rio de Janeiro, 1992), the World Conference on Human Rights (Vienna, 1993), the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994), the World Summit for Social Development (Copenhagen, 1995), the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II, Istanbul, 1996) and the most recent, the World Food Summit (Rome, 1996). At all these conferences world leaders looked to education to release the competence and creativity of citizens. Education was seen as a vital element in a strategy to nurture the sustainable development processes.

⑥

There have been parallel changes in education as well. Since its foundation, UNESCO has played a pioneering role in the conception of adult education as an essential part of any education system and of human-centred development. There are now numerous agencies active in the field, many of which have taken part in the Hamburg conference.

⑦

The first International Conference on Adult Education (Elsinore, Denmark, 1949) was followed by conferences in Montréal (1960), Tokyo (1972) and Paris (1985). Other important milestones include the 1972 Report of the International Commission on the Development of Education chaired by Edgar

Faure, *Learning to Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow*, and the influential 1976 UNESCO Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education which set out the vital role of adult education „as forming part of lifelong education and learning".

⑧

During the twelve years that have elapsed since the Paris Declaration, humanity has been affected by profound changes resulting from the processes of globalization and technological advance, together with a new international order, all of which have led to far-reaching transformations in the political, cultural and economic fields.

⑨

A quarter of a century after *Learning to Be*, the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century, chaired by Jacques Delors, said that, „The concept of learning throughout life is the key that gives access to the twenty-first century. It goes beyond the traditional distinctions between initial and continuing education. It links up with another concept, that of the learning society, in which everything affords an opportunity for learning and fulfilling one's potential". The Commission's report, *Learning: The Treasure Within*, emphasized the importance of the four pillars of education: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be. As indicated in the Hamburg Declaration, adult learning has grown in depth and scale, and has become an imperative at the workplace, in the home and in the community, as men and women struggle to create new realities at every stage of life. Adult education plays an essential and distinct role in equipping women and men to respond productively to the constantly changing world and in providing learning which acknowledges the rights and responsibilities of the adult and the community.

⑩

In Hamburg the broad and complex spectrum of adult learning was considered under ten thematic headings: ■ *Adult learning and democracy: the challenges of the twenty-first century* ■ *Improving the conditions and quality of adult learning* ■ *Ensuring the universal right to literacy and basic education* ■ *Adult learning, gender equality and equity, and the empowerment of women* ■ *Adult learning and the changing world of work* ■ *Adult learning in relation to environment, health and population* ■ *Adult learning, culture, media and new information technologies* ■ *Adult learning for all: the rights and aspirations of different groups* ■ *The economics of adult learning* ■ *Enhancing international co-operation and solidarity*

Theme 1 Adult Learning and Democracy: the Challenges of the Twenty-first Century

⑪

The challenges of the twenty-first century require the creativity and competence of citizens of all ages in alleviating poverty, consolidating democratic processes, strengthening and protecting human rights, promoting a culture of peace, encouraging active citizenship, strengthening the role of civil society, ensuring gender equality and equity, enhancing the empowerment of women, recognizing cultural diversity (including the use of language, and promoting justice and equality for minorities and indigenous peoples) and a new partnership between state and civil society. Indeed, to reinforce democracy, it is essential to strengthen learning environments, to reinforce the participation of citizens, and to create contexts where the productivity of people will be enhanced and where a culture of equity and peace can take root.

We commit ourselves to:

⑫

Creating greater community participation:

a by promoting active citizenship and improving participatory democracy in order to create learning communities;

b by encouraging and developing leadership capabilities among the adult population and especially among women, enabling them to participate in institutions of the state, the market and civil society.

⑬

Raising awareness about prejudice and discrimination in society:

a by ensuring the legitimate right of people to self-determination and to the free exercise of their way of life;

b by taking measures to eliminate discrimination in education at all levels based on gender, race, language, religion, national or ethnic origin, disability, or any other form of discrimination;

c by developing education programmes that enable men and women to understand gender relations and human sexuality in all their dimensions;

d by recognizing and affirming the rights to education of women, of indigenous peoples and nomadic peoples, and of minorities by ensuring equitable representation in decision-making processes and provision, and by supporting the publication of local and indigenous learning materials;

e by recognizing that all indigenous peoples and nomadic peoples have the right of access to all levels and forms of state education, and the right to enjoy their own cultures and to use their own languages. Their education should be linguistically and culturally appropriate to their needs and should facilitate access to further education and training by working together, and learning to respect and appreciate each other's differences in order to ensure a shared future for all members of society.

⑭

Encouraging greater recognition, participation and accountability of non-governmental organizations and local community groups:

a by recognizing the role non-governmental organizations play in awareness-raising and empowerment of people, which are of vital importance for democracy, peace and development;

b by recognizing and appropriately funding the growing role of non-governmental organizations and local community groups in providing educational opportunities for adults in all sectors, in reaching the most needy and in contributing to an active civil society.

⑮

Promoting a culture of peace, intercultural dialogue and human rights:

a by enabling citizens to approach conflicts in an empathic, non-violent and creative manner, with peace education for all, peace journalism and peace culture as important components;

b by strengthening the educational dimensions of human rights activities in formal and non-formal adult learning provisions at community, national, regional and global levels.

Theme 2: Improving the Conditions and Quality of Adult Learning

⑯

While there is a growing demand for adult education and an explosion of information, the disparities between those who have access and those who do not are also growing. There is therefore a need to counter this polarity, which reinforces existing inequalities, by creating adult learning structures and life-long learning environments that can help to correct the prevalent trend. How can the conditions of adult learning be improved? How can we overcome inadequacies in its provision? What kind of measures and reforms should be undertaken in order to achieve greater accessibility, relevance, quality, respect for diversity and recognition of prior learning?

We commit ourselves to:

⑰

Creating conditions for the expression of people's demand for learning:

a by adopting legislation and other appropriate means recognizing the right to learn of all adults, proposing an enlarged vision of adult learning and facilitating co-ordination between agencies;

b by facilitating the expression of the learning demand of people within their own culture and language;

c by creating public information and counselling services and developing methods for the recognition of experiential and prior learning;

d by developing strategies to extend the benefits of adult learning to those currently excluded and to help adults make informed choices concerning the learning routes best suited to their aspirations;

e by promoting a culture of learning through the „one hour a day for learning" movement;

f by underlining the importance of observing International Women's Day (8 March) and International Literacy Day (8 September) and of using the International Literacy Prizes for the promotion of adult learning, and by developing a United Nations Week of Adult Learning.

⑱

Ensuring accessibility and quality:

a by adopting legislation, policies and co-operation mechanisms with all partners to make access easier, to facilitate the participation of adults in formal education and education at the workplace and in the community, and to support and extend programmes for rural and isolated areas;

b by developing a comprehensive policy, taking into account the critical role of the learning environment;

c by improving the quality and ensuring the relevance of adult education through the participation of learners in designing programmes;

d by facilitating co-operation among adult learning initiatives related to different institutions and sectors of activity.

⑲

Opening schools, colleges and universities to adult learners:

a by requiring institutions of formal education from primary level onwards to be prepared to open their doors to adult learners, both women and men, adapting their programmes and learning conditions to meet their needs;

b by developing coherent mechanisms to recognize the outcomes of learning undertaken in different contexts, and to ensure that credit is transferable within and between institutions, sectors and states;

c by establishing joint university/community research and training partnerships, and by bringing the services of universities to outside groups;

d by carrying out interdisciplinary research in all aspects of adult education and learning with the participation of adult learners themselves;

e by creating opportunities for adult learning in flexible, open and creative ways, taking into account the specificities of women's and men's lives;

f by providing systematic continuing education for adult educators;

g by calling upon the World Conference on Higher Education (Paris, 1998) to promote the transformation of post-secondary institutions into lifelong learning institutions, and to define the role of universities accordingly.

⑳

Improving the conditions for the professional development of adult educators and facilitators:

a by elaborating policies and taking measures for better recruitment, initial training and in-service training, working conditions and remuneration of the personnel engaged in youth and adult education programmes and activities in order to ensure their quality and sustainability, including the contents and methodology of training;

b by developing in the area of continuing education innovative methods of teaching and learning, including interactive technologies and inductive methods involving close co-ordination between working experience and training;

c by promoting information and documentation services, ensuring general access and reflecting cultural diversity.

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Improving the relevance of initial education within a lifelong learning perspective:

by eliminating barriers between non-formal and formal education, and ensuring that young adults have opportunities to pursue their education beyond their initial formal schooling.

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Promoting policy-driven and action-oriented research and studies on adult learning:

a by promoting national and cross-national studies on learners, teachers, programmes, methods and institutions of adult education, and supporting the evaluation of adult education provision and participation, especially in relation to the needs of all groups of society;

b by regularly providing UNESCO and other multilateral agencies with adult education indicators and monitoring the whole spectrum of adult education and participation, calling upon UNESCO to support Member States in such activities;

c by developing an enhanced capacity for research and knowledge dissemination by encouraging national and international exchanges of information, innovative models and best practices.

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Recognizing the new role of the state and social partners:

a by ensuring that all partners recognize their mutual responsibility for establishing supportive statutory frameworks, for ensuring accessibility and equity, for setting up monitoring and co-ordination mechanisms, and for providing professional back-up for policy-makers, researchers and learners through networking resources;

b by creating the necessary financial, administrative and management support, by reinforcing mechanisms for intersectoral and interdepartmental linkages, and by ensuring the participation of civil society organizations to complement the response of governments, providing them with appropriate funding to support their activities;

c by calling upon UNESCO to continue its policy of building partnerships among all actors in the field of adult education.

Theme 3: Ensuring the Universal Right to Literacy and Basic Education

(24)

Today, there are nearly 1,000 million people who have not acquired literacy skills and there are millions who have been unable to sustain them, even within the most prosperous countries. Everywhere in the world, literacy should be a gateway to fuller participation in social, cultural, political and economic life. Literacy must be relevant to people's socio-economic and cultural contexts. Literacy enables individuals to function effectively in their societies and to fashion and shape them. It is a process in which communities effect their own cultural and social transformations. It must address the needs of both women and men, to enable them to understand the interconnections between personal, local and global realities.

We commit ourselves to:

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Linking literacy to the social, cultural and economic development aspirations of learners:

a by emphasizing the importance of literacy for human rights, participatory citizenship, social, political and economic equity, and cultural identity;

b by reducing the female illiteracy rate by the year 2000 to at least half of the 1990 levels, with emphasis on rural, migrant, refugee and displaced persons, indigenous peoples, minorities, women, and women with disabilities;

c by encouraging the creative uses of literacy;

d by replacing the narrow vision of literacy by learning that meets social, economic and political needs and gives expression to a new form of citizenship;

e by integrating literacy and other forms of learning and basic skills into all appropriate development projects, particularly those related to health and the environment, and by encouraging grass-roots organizations and social movements to promote their own learning and development initiatives;

f by launching the Paulo Freire African Decade on Literacy for All beginning in 1998 in order to create literate societies responsive to the different cultural traditions. To that end, special funds should be created by both public and private sources.

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Improving the quality of literacy programmes by building links with traditional and minority knowledge and cultures:

a by improving the learning process through learner-centred strategies; sensitivity to diversity of languages and cultures; the involvement of learners in materials development; intergenerational learning processes; and the use of local languages, indigenous knowledge and appropriate technologies;

b by improving the quality and effectiveness of literacy programmes through stronger links with other fields , such as health, justice, urban and rural development; basic and applied research; evaluation and assessment; the use of appropriate technologies to support both teacher and learner; collection and dissemination of best practices; effective communication of research results to literacy researchers, educators and policy-makers; and the use of existing and/or new literacy resource centres;

c by improving the training of literacy personnel through increased attention to the personal achievement, working conditions and professional status of literacy educators; ongoing support for personal development; improved awareness and communications within the literacy community; and special attention to the qualification of women who, in many settings, form the majority of adult educators;

d by designing an international programme for the development of literacy monitoring and evaluation systems and of feedback systems that promote local input and participation by the community in the improvement of the programme at the international, regional and national levels, and by establishing a worldwide information base for promoting policies and management and for improving the quality, efficiency and sustainability of such efforts;

e by increasing public awareness and support for literacy, paying more attention to the obstacles to literacy for all, and developing better understanding of how literacy is embedded in social practice;

f by mobilizing sufficient financial and human resources through a strong financial commitment to the advancement of literacy by intergovernmental organizations, bilateral agencies, and national, regional and local governments, as well as partnerships involving formal and non-formal education institutions, volunteers, non-governmental organizations and the private sector;

g by ensuring the use of traditional media and modern technologies for literacy in both industrialized and developing countries.

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Enriching the literacy environment:

a by enhancing the use and retention of literacy through the production and dissemination of locally relevant, gender-sensitive and learner-generated print materials;

b by collaborating actively with producers and publishers so that they adapt existing texts and materials to make them accessible and comprehensible to new readers (e.g. the press, legal documents, fiction, etc.);

c by creating networks for the exchange and distribution of locally produced texts that directly reflect the knowledge and practices of communities.

Theme 4. Adult Learning, Gender Equality and Equity, and the Empowerment of Women

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Equal opportunity in all aspects of education is essential to enable women of all ages to make their full contribution to society and to the resolution of the multiple problems confronting humanity. When women are caught in a situation of social isolation and lack of access to knowledge and information, they are alienated from decision-making processes within the family, community and society in general, and have little control over their bodies and lives. For poor women, the sheer business of survival becomes an obstacle to education. Educational processes should therefore address the constraints that prevent women's access to intellectual resources and empower women to become fully active as partners in social transformation. The message of equality and equal access must not be limited to programmes intended for women. Education should ensure that women become aware of the need to organize as women in order to change the situation and to build their capaci-

ties so that they can gain access to formal power structures and decision-making processes in both private and public spheres.

We commit ourselves to:

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Promoting the empowerment of women and gender equity through adult learning:

a by recognizing and correcting the continued marginalization and denial of access and of equal opportunities for quality education that girls and women are still facing at all levels;

b by ensuring that all women and men are provided with the necessary education to meet their basic needs and to exercise their human rights;

c by raising the consciousness of girls and boys, women and men concerning gender inequalities and the need to change these unequal relations;

d by eliminating gender disparities in access to all areas and levels of education;

e by ensuring that policies and practices comply with the principle of equitable representation of both sexes, especially at the managerial and decision-making level of educational programmes;

f by combating domestic and sexual violence through providing appropriate education for men and supplying information and counselling to increase women's ability to protect themselves from such violence;

g by removing barriers to access to formal and non-formal education in the case of pregnant adolescents and young mothers;

h by promoting a gender-sensitive participatory pedagogy which acknowledges the daily life experience of women and recognizes both cognitive and affective outcomes;

i by educating men and women to acknowledge the serious and adverse impacts of globalization and structural adjustment policies in all parts of the world, especially upon women;

j by taking adequate legislative, financial and economic measures and by implementing social policies to ensure women's successful participation in adult education through the removal of obstacles and the provision of supportive learning environments;

k by educating women and men in such a way as to promote the sharing of multiple workloads and responsibilities;

l by encouraging women to organize as women to promote a collective identity and to create women's organizations to bring about change;

m by promoting women's participation in decision-making processes and in formal structures.

Theme 5: Adult Learning and the Changing World of Work

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The changing world of work is a multifaceted issue of enormous concern and relevance to adult learning. Globalization and new technologies are having a powerful and growing impact on all dimensions of the individual and collective lives of women and men. There is increasing concern about the precariousness of employment and the rise of unemployment. In developing countries, the concern is not simply one of employment but also of ensuring secure livelihoods for all. The improvement needed in terms of production and distribution in industry, agriculture and services requires increased competences, the development of new skills and the capacity to adapt productively to the continuously changing demands of employment throughout working life. The right to work, the opportunity for employment and the responsibility to contribute, *at all ages of life, to the development and well-being of one's society are issues which adult learning must address.*

We commit ourselves to:

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Promoting the right to work and the right to work-related adult learning:

a by recognizing the right to work and to a sustainable livelihood for all and by fostering, through new solidarities, the diversification of models of employment and recognized productive activities;

b by ensuring that work-related adult education provides the specific competencies and skills for entry into the labour market and occupational mobility, and improves the ability of individuals to take part in diversified models of employment;

c by promoting partnerships between employers and employees;

d by ensuring that knowledge and skills informally acquired are fully recognized;

e by emphasizing the powerful role of vocational adult education in the lifelong learning process;

f by integrating in informal and non-formal adult education processes an analytical and critical perspective in relation to the economic world and its functioning.

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Ensuring access to work-related adult learning for different target groups:

a by encouraging employers to support and promote workplace literacy;

b by ensuring that work-related adult education policies address the needs of self-employed workers and workers in the informal economy and facilitate access for women and migrant workers to training in non-traditional jobs and sectors;

c by making sure that work-related adult education programmes consider gender equality, age and cultural differences, safety in the workplace and concerns for workers' health, protection against unfair treatment and harassment, as well as the preservation of the environment and the proper management of natural resources;

d by enriching the learning environment at the workplace and offering flexible individual and collective learning activities and relevant services for workers.

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Diversifying the contents of work-related adult learning:

a by addressing the issues inherent in agriculture, natural resource management and food security;

b by including elements relating to agricultural extension services, citizens' rights, organization-building, natural resource management, food security and reproductive health education;

c by stimulating entrepreneurship through adult education;

d by promoting gender-sensitive approaches within extension services, answering the needs of women in agriculture, industry and services, and enhancing their capacity to disseminate knowledge on all these fields and issues.

Theme 6. Adult Learning in Relation to Environment, Health and Population

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Environment, health, population, nutrition and food security are intricately linked to one another in sustaining development. Each is a complex issue. Caring *for the environment by controlling pollution, preventing soil erosion and prudently managing natural resources has a direct impact on the population's health, nutrition and well-being which, in turn, have implications for population growth and the availability of food. These issues are part of the wider quest for sustainable development, which cannot be attained without a strong emphasis in education on family issues, the reproductive life cycle and population issues such as ageing, migration, urbanization, and intergenerational and family relations.*

We commit ourselves to:

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Promoting the competence and involvement of civil society in dealing with environmental and development problems:

a by making use of adult education activities in order to increase the capacity of citizens from different sectors of society to take innovative initiatives and to develop programmes based on ecologically and socially sustainable development;

b by supporting and implementing adult education programmes designed to give people the chance to learn and interact with decision-makers on environmental and development issues, in particular on the need for changes in production and consumption patterns;

c by integrating indigenous and traditional knowledge of the interaction between human beings and nature into adult learning programmes, and by recognizing that minority and indigenous communities have special authority and competence in protecting their own environment;

d by ensuring the accountability of decision-makers in the context of policies relating to the environment, population and development;

e by integrating environmental and development issues into all sectors of adult learning and developing an ecological approach to lifelong learning.

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Promoting adult learning on population-related issues and family life:

by enabling people to exercise their human rights, including reproductive and sexual health rights, and to develop responsible and caring attitudes.

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Recognizing the decisive role of population education and health promotion in preserving and improving the health of communities and individuals:

a by developing and reinforcing participatory health education and promotion programmes aimed at empowering people to create healthier environments and to engage in advocacy for improved and accessible health services;

b by providing access to education which enables reproductive choices that empower women to overcome barriers preventing them from full and equal participation in personal, social and economic development opportunities;

c by developing health-related learning content, including AIDS and other disease prevention, nutrition, sanitation and mental health;

d by using adult learning approaches to enrich education-information-communication strategies and to provide opportunities for people to apply their own experience and knowledge in making diagnoses and choosing possible lines of action.

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Ensuring cultural and gender-specific learning programmes:

a by extending health education for women and men in order to share responsibilities and to broaden concerns relating to reproductive health and child care;

b by eliminating cultural practices which are harmful and inhumane, and which result in the violation of women's sexual and reproductive rights.

Theme 7: Adult Learning, Culture, Media and New Information Technologies

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Adult learning provides an essential opportunity for adult learners to participate in all cultural institutions, mass media and new technologies in order to establish effective interactive communication and to build understanding and co-operation between peoples and cultures. Respect for individuals, their cultures and their communities is the foundation for dialogue and confidence-building, as well as relevant and sustainable learning and training. Efforts need to be made to ensure greater access to and participation in the means of communication for all cultures and social groups so that all may share their special visions, cultural artefacts and ways of life and not merely receive the messages of other cultures.

We commit ourselves to:

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Developing greater synergy between the media, the new information technologies and adult learning:

a by contributing to reinforcing the educational function of the media;

b by making the media more receptive to adult learning and by encouraging wider participation in the development and evaluation of the media;

c by recognizing that the media have a key role in access to adult learning opportunities for groups excluded from such opportunities, through promotional campaigns to foster participation;

d by reviewing the development and dissemination of new technologies from a regional, local and cultural perspective, taking into account the uneven development of infrastructures and availability of equipment;

e by ensuring equal access to and sustainability of open and distance learning systems, the media, and the new information and communication technologies, and by using new technologies to explore alternative ways of learning;

f by promoting media education and media content that will help users to develop critical and discerning attitudes towards the media;

g by providing training for educators and cultural workers to encourage the development and application of appropriate resources for adult learning;

h by promoting the distribution of learning materials at all levels, both regionally and world-wide.

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Promoting fair use of intellectual property:

by revising copyright and patenting regulations to promote the distribution of learning materials while preserving the rights of authors.

as lead agency, to convene a conference on lifelong learning for the disabled in 1999, on the eve of the new millennium.

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Creating continuing opportunities for persons with disabilities and promoting their integration:

a by making all forms of learning and training accessible to disabled people and ensuring that the learning and training provided respond to their educational needs and goals;

b by fostering institutional policies that ensure equal access, services and vocational and employment opportunities for the disabled, under which appropriate learning technology matches their special learning needs.

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Recognizing the right to learn of all prison inmates:

a By providing prison inmates with information on and access to different levels of education and training;

b By developing and implementing comprehensive education programmes in prisons, with the participation of inmates, to meet their needs and learning aspirations;

c By making it easier for non-governmental organizations, teachers and other providers of educational activities to work in prisons, thereby providing prisoners with access to educational institutions and encouraging initiatives that link courses carried out inside and outside prisons.

Theme 9. The Economics of Adult Learning

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A history of inadequate financing, growing recognition of the long-term benefits of investing in adult learning, the diversification of financial patterns and the number of contributors, the role of multilateral organizations, the impact of structural adjustment programmes and the commercialization of adult learning provision are some of the crucial aspects of the economics of adult learning. The costs of adult learning must be seen in relationship to the benefits that derive from reinforcing the competence of adults. Methods used in cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analyses should reflect the multiple impact of adult learning on society. The education of adults contributes to their self-reliance and personal autonomy, to the exercise of basic rights and to increased productivity and labour efficiency. It is also positively translated into higher levels of education and well-being of future generations. Adult education, being a human development and productive investment, should be protected from the constraints of structural adjustment.

We commit ourselves to:

(49)

Improving the financing of adult education:

a by contributing to the funding of adult education by bilateral and multilateral financial institutions within the framework of partnerships between the various ministries and other governmental organizations, non-governmental organizations, the private sector, the community and the learners;

b by seeking to invest, as proposed by the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century, at least 6 per cent of Member States' gross national product (GNP) in education and by allocating an equitable share of the education budget to adult education;

(42)

Strengthening libraries and cultural institutions:

a by continuing to fund museums, libraries, theatres, ecological parks and other cultural institutions, and by recognizing these cultural institutions as adult learning centres and resources;

b by promoting the conservation and use of the cultural heritage as a lifelong learning resource and by supporting the development of methods and techniques for strengthening heritage and cultural learning.

Theme 8: Adult Learning for All: the Rights and Aspirations of Different Groups

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The right to education is a universal right of all people. While there is agreement that adult learning must be accessible to all, the reality is that many groups are still excluded, such as the aged, migrants, gypsies and other non-territorial and/or nomadic peoples, refugees, disabled people and prison inmates. These groups should have access to education programmes that accommodate them within an individual-centred pedagogy capable of meeting their needs and facilitating their full participation in society. All members of the community should be invited and, where necessary, assisted in participating in adult learning. This implies meeting a diversity of learning needs.

We therefore commit ourselves to:

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Creating an educational environment supporting all forms of learning for older people:

a by ensuring access for older people to all the services and provisions that sustain adult learning and training and thereby facilitate their active participation in society;

b by using the 1999 United Nations Year of Older People to plan activities which illustrate how adult education can support the role of older people in building our societies.

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Ensuring the right of migrants, displaced populations, refugees and people with disabilities to participate in adult education:

a by providing migrants and refugees with comprehensive education and training opportunities that promote their political, economic and social participation, and enhance their competence and their cultural base;

b by developing and implementing programmes for the host population designed to promote understanding, especially among politicians, media experts, law enforcement agents, educators and social service agents, concerning the rights and conditions of migrants and refugees;

c by ensuring that adult gypsies and other nomadic groups, taking into account their lifestyles and languages, are able to resume their studies and continue their training in existing institutions;

d by ensuring that adults with disabilities have full access to adult education programmes and opportunities, by requesting UNESCO and other agencies of the United Nations to provide sign language interpretation and full accessibility to all at their meetings and conferences, and by requesting UNESCO,

e by preparing national and regional reports and disseminating them among public and private agencies involved in adult education;

f by involving the multilateral financial institutions in the debate on adult learning and more particularly on educational policies in relation to the negative impact of structural adjustment programmes on education.

(53)

Creating an environment conducive to international co-operation:

a by providing greater opportunities for grass-roots workers and learners to meet one another in groups composed on a South-South and North-South basis, and by strengthening training networks across the regions to serve as mechanisms for upgrading adult education;

b By reinforcing international networks representing different actors and social partners with the mandate to carry out evaluation and monitoring of main education policies;

c By supporting the creation of a mechanism through which individual and collective rights relating to adult education could be promoted and protected.

Follow-up

Strategy

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The Agenda for the Future emerging from the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education should comply with the recommendations adopted by all major conferences of the United Nations, particularly as regards the gender dimension.

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Given the highly decentralized nature of adult learning, its growing diversity, and the large and increasing number of partners of many types involved, the strategies and mechanisms used to follow up the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education should be highly flexible. For reasons of both economy and efficiency, they should also be based, to the maximum possible extent, on existing institutions, structures and networks. The aim should be to make existing machinery for action, co-ordination and monitoring more effective, not to duplicate it.

(56)

It is essential that all partners participating in the Conference play an active role within their particular areas of competence, working through their normal channels to ensure that the potential of adult learning is developed and that programmes are conceived and conducted in ways that contribute to the promotion of democracy, justice, peace and mutual understanding. The Conference has taken note of the Danish initiative to establish an International Academy for Democracy and Education in co-operation with UNESCO and interested national partners.

(57)

At the international level UNESCO should play a leading and proactive role both within its relevant fields of action and together with other organizations, networks and agencies, including women's organizations and other relevant actors, to advance adult learning. Within UNESCO, the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) in Hamburg should be strengthened in order to become an international reference centre for adult and continuing education. UNESCO should also take the appropriate steps to update the 1976 *Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education*. Other international and regional in-

c by proposing that each development sector (e.g. agriculture, health, the environment) assign a share of its budget to adult learning, that every development programme in agriculture, health and the environment include an adult learning component and that the cost of adult education and training in every enterprise be considered as an investment in productivity;

d by investing an equitable share of resources in women's education to ensure their full participation in all fields of learning and knowledge;

e by promoting the ratification and application of the International Labour Organization Convention 140 (1974) concerning paid educational leave;

f by stimulating the social partners to engage in adult education in enterprises, funded for example by allocating a proportion of their total budget to this end;

g by supporting adult education through a variety of creative community initiatives which will draw on the strengths and capacities of all members of society;

h by exploring the conversion, on the basis of debt swap proposals, of the current debts of the least developed and developing countries into investment in human development;

i by studying the proposal for an „Entitlement to Lifelong Learning" as suggested in Learning: The Treasure Within.

Theme 10: Enhancing International Co-operation and Solidarity

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International co-operation and solidarity must strengthen a new vision of adult learning which is both holistic, to embrace all aspects of life, and cross-sectoral, to include all areas of cultural, social and economic activity. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights must be the principal source of guidance in the pro-

motion of international co-operation and solidarity, and the culture of peace. Dialogue, sharing, consultation and the willingness to learn from one another are the basis of this co-operation. It should include respect for diversity.

We commit ourselves to:

(51)

Making adult learning a tool for development and mobilizing resources to that end:

a by assessing all co-operation projects in terms of both their contributions to adult learning and human development and the priority they give to the strengthening of local expertise;

b by increasing the resources directly available for adult education within the education sector in developing countries.

(52)

Strengthening national, regional and global co-operation, organizations and networks in the field of adult learning:

a by promoting and strengthening inter-agency and intersectoral co-operation;

b by supporting existing national, regional and global adult education networks through the sharing of information, skills and capacities, and through the promotion of dialogue at all levels;

c by encouraging donor agencies to contribute financially to networks for local, regional and global co-operation between adult educators;

d by monitoring and taking steps to avoid negative impacts of structural adjustment programmes and other policies (fiscal, trade, work, health, industry) on the allocation of resources to the education sector, with special reference to adult education;

tergovernmental and non-governmental organizations should provide similar leadership within their respective spheres of competence.

(58)

Structures and networks already exist at both the international and regional levels for the promotion of adult learning. In certain cases, particularly in the developing regions, it would, however, be important to reinforce these existing structures and networks, including UNESCO's regional programmes for basic education, and to provide additional resources to enable them to play their roles more effectively and on a larger scale.

Promoting closer consultation among partners

(59)

The Conference considers that while the establishment of costly new permanent structures is to be avoided, it would be useful to provide a means or mechanism for communication and regular consultation among major partners in the Fifth International Conference and other organizations actively engaged in the promotion of adult learning. The purpose of such a mechanism would be to develop closer consultation and co-ordination among key partners and a setting for periodic discussion of progress and problems in adult learning, and to serve as a means for monitoring the implementation of the policy and recommendations set forth in this *Agenda*.

(60)

There should be a forum and a consultation mechanism to secure the implementation of the recommendations and outcomes of this Conference. UNESCO, as the United Nations lead agency in education with its relevant units, institutes and field offices, should play the leading role in taking the initiative and responsibility for promoting adult education as an integral part of a system of learning throughout life, for mobilizing the support of all partners, not only within the United Nations and multilateral systems, but also non-governmental organizations and other organizations in civil society, for giving priority to implementing the *Agenda* and for facilitating provision of the services needed to reinforce international co-ordination and co-operation.

(61)

Lastly, the Conference requests UNESCO to ensure the wide distribution of the *Hamburg Declaration on Adult Learning* and the *Agenda for the Future* in as many languages as possible. UNESCO should explore the possibility of an inter-agency review of the Agenda, mid-way before the next international conference on adult education.

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